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ABSTRACT

Contained in this yearbook are the proceedings of the fourth annual Arizona State University Reading Conference. This edition reflects an emphasis on bilingual/bicultural aspects of reading, as well as on content area instruction. Following a foreword, the articles discuss the following: (1) matching materials and strategies for comprehension, (2) teaching study skills in the secondary schools, (3) bilingual acquisition and instruction, (4) sports and reading as programs for content area teachers, (5) beginning reading and writing in a second language, (6) the implications of bilingual-bicultural education for early childhood reading development, (7) vocabulary development in the content areas, and (8) self-directed activities for reading. (HTH)

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READING:

A FOUNDATION FOR SUCCESS

VOLUME 4

Fourth Yearbook of the Arizona State University
Reading Conference - 1981

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The 1980-81 yearbook of the Reading Conference Proceedings is dedicated to the memory of Margie Dillard, friend and colleague of the students, faculty and staff of the Reading Education at Arizona State University.

V. Pesqueira

FORWARD

At the risk of sounding trite, I introduce this volumn of the Proceedings by acknowledging the yoeman effort the Graduate Students in Reading Education (GSRE) exerted in assembling the materials presented herein. They, along with Dr. Daisy M. Jones who served as editorial consultant, are to be commended for this professional service and the quality of this product.

This edition of the Proceedings reflects the Annual Conference theme in an interesting manner. Thematically, the phrase Reading: A Foundation for Success, is deceptively simplistic, not unlike many a layman's view of the reading process. However, as professional reading educators, we are well aware of the complex nature of that process we have committed ourselves to study and to teach. The content of this volumn subtly reflects the magnitude of this complexity through its diversity of topics and the breadth and depth of treatment provided by the contributors in their respective articles.

In contrast to previous editions, more emphasis on bilingual-bicultural aspects will be noted through the inclusion of separate articles by Gomez, Garcia, and Hudelson. While Gomez and Garcia address broader programatic issues and implications, Hudelson presents insights into the learning processes of several individuals. Her report emanates from intensive observation and focused study. While all three authors speak to significant points, Hudelson's account is expecially incisive in that it may well serve as a model for demonstrating how we might come to better understand learner behavior through synthesizing information gathered from multiple-perspectives and alternative strategies.

The strand of content area reading is well represented by the works of Gentile, Searfoss and Christen. Directed at content applications, these artfcles are based on fundamental constructs of reading and learning; as such, they are pertinent to any reading context. While Searfoss emphasizes creative yet practical approaches to vocabulary development, Christen chooses to address that veritable "waste-land" of reading instruction: the teaching of study-type reading skills. Gentile focuses on yet another situation that has been the bane of reading specialists, if not all educators, for eons: motivation. He presents some masterful strategies capitalizing on students' interests in sports for teaching a variety of reading behaviors.

Enhancing what is learned through reading and promoting more effective/efficient acquisition of reading behavior are the major themes of the remaining two articles. Regarding the former, Bean sets forth a lesson framework, with illustrative strategies, which should help us all to better organize and otherwise make more sense out of the myriad of specialized instructional techniques which tend to dominate our current

professional publications. In the latter case, Wallen explicates procedures designed to facilitate maximal learning through independent learner activities. His specific examples are based on conclusions well-grounded in recent time-on-task learning research. A cogent review of this research is presented at the onset of his article.

Given this terse overview, permit me to introduce these Proceedings, therefore, as a compilation that quite literally includes "something for everyone." Hopefully, the understandings we glean from the ideas presented by the contributors will lead us to provide for reading development as a Foundation for Success rather than as a capstone of failure.

Dr. Keith J. Thomas

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MATCHING MATERIALS AND STRATEGIES FOR COMPREHENSION

Thomas W. Bean
California State University

I. Introduction

If you look carefully at most collections of commercial materials including subject area texts, high interest - low vocabulary stories, and instructional kits, a familiar pattern emerges. Students are directed to read a chapter or selection and answer comprehension questions. Almost without exception, the questions are at the literal level requiring a single, convergent answer from the text. Despite notable improvements in readability, format, and packaging, few contemporary texts and materials reflect an active, student-centered view of comprehension development. The reader is treated as a passive receiver of explicitly stated information. In contrast, our own classroom experiences and recent insights from psycholinguistics confirm that reading is a complex communication process with the reader playing a major role in the transaction (Rosenblatt, 1978). Thus students' perceptions and experiences need to be included in the reading assignments we orchestrate, particularly if we expect students to develop independence in prediction and critical thinking. Given, that commercial materials are unlikely to do this for us, how can we develop these crucial skills?

Rather than relying exclusively on the approach to comprehension provided in commercial texts, anthologies, and kits, we can supplement these with out own teaching strategies. In particular, strategies that treat reading as an interactive process acknowledging students as active participants will advance students' thinking beyond the convergent, literal level. Guiding students' comprehension before, during, and after reading fosters this process. Indeed, viewing comprehension instruction in a three stage format with specific strategies for guiding students' understanding at each stage provides a manageable framework for lesson planning.

II. Instructional Stages and Reading Comprehension

Before Reading

Research in psycholinguistics over the past fifteen years supports our intuition about the ingredients of successful comprehension. What a reader knows about a topic before reading strongly influences subsequent understanding, particularly if new, unfamiliar information is introduced (Bransford, 1979; Smith, 1978). For example, you may know that the word "phobia" means fear. While you may not be able to define completely the word 'arachibutyrophobia," you at least have some idea about its possible

meaning. You can make some reasonably informed predictions based on your existing knowledge of phobias in general. (Before you run for the dictionary, the word will be introduced in context later).

During Reading

Certainly having some prior knowledge of a topic assists comprehension but prior knowledge alone is not enough. An active, questioning approach during reading is also necessary for the acquisition of ideas, particularly when the text is challenging. All of us can recall reading and rereading pages of a difficult text without processing any of it. This condition of mindless page-turning can be avoided by intentionally interrupting students at significant points in a text and having them restate ideas in their own words.

After Reading

Finally, having students reflect on material read by organizing ideas into categories, diagrams, and summaries or by engaging in the development of a post-reading project are all valuable activities. However, each of these assumes that students have the independent skills necessary to carry-out such activities. It may be more advisable to use very concrete post-reading strategies that guide students' reflection on material read before expecting more independent or sophisticated responses.

Each of these stages, before reading, during reading, and after reading contributes to critical, thoughtful comprehension. Dividing the reading of a selection into such an instructional sequence departs from the typical read-and-answer-the-questions format of most materials. What specific teaching strategies might you attempt for each of the three stages? The possibilities are endless, but three strategies will be introduced to illustrate the usefulness of this framework for lesson planning.

A. Before Reading - Context Redefinition

Before Reading

Our classrooms are social, linguistically rich environments. The pre-reading stage is an ideal time to bring this rich language potential into play through guided brainstorming and discussion of a topic students are going to encounter. The following pre-reading strategy, Context Redefinition (Cunningham, Cunningham, and Arthur, 1981), is ideal for both narrative and expository material.

Context Redefinition

Nearly all text material beyond the primary grades contains technical vocabulary that is unfamiliar and challenging to students.

These technical terms often portray key ideas in a content area reading selection. Left to their own devices, students may resort to looking-up unfamiliar words in the dictionary or text glossary, but these are cumbersome and inefficient methods. Indeed, fluent readers typically use the dictionary as a spelling rather than meaning guide. They routinely apply context and structural analysis to decipher unfamiliar words. The strategy of context redefinition is designed to help students grasp the power of context in determining word meanings. In addition, it provides a teacher with an informal measure of students' prior knowledge in a content area. Most important, by using prediction, context redefinition fosters an active, questioning approach to text reading.

Let's assume that we want to use context redefinition to pre-teach some technical vocabulary for a Health unit on phobias. The following teaching steps would be used:

Step One: Selecting key terms

Select about four key terms from the reading including some that are familiar to students and others that are new.

Step Two: Listing on board

List these on the board or overhead with a space for student-generated predictions.

Step Three: Generating predictions

Have students generate predictions as to each word's meaning and list these verbatim on the board. Here's an example of students' predictions for key vocabulary in the phobia unit:

Vocabulary	Students' Pre-Reading Definitions
monophobia	fear of one; one fear
anthrophobia	fear of people; fear of anthropology
logizomechanophobia	fear of logic; fear of machines; fear of computers
arachibutyrophobia	fear of spiders

Step Four: Verifying predictions

Have students read or listen to the selection for the

purpose of verifying their predictions using context. For example, the following excerpt from The People's Almanac (Wallechinsky and Wallace, 1975) entitled "Find Your Phobia" might be used for this lesson.

"The little fears range from the fear of oneself (monophobia) to the fear of everyone else."

"(anthrophobia), and psychiatrists say they've already scientifically labeled over 700 of the redoubtable dreads -- although they've just started counting."

"Of the 700 newly catalogued and very odd phobias, bomb-related fears certainly make up a large percentage. One is logizomechanophobia, the fear of computers computing, and machines (or politicians) machinating."

"But how can anyone generalize about fears when there are such specific ones around as arachibutyrophobia, the fear of getting peanut butter stuck in the roof of the mouth?"

Step Five: Suggesting needed changes

Return to the original, student-generated definitions and have students suggest needed changes based on the contextual use of the terms. Emphasize their success at predicting some of the terms such as "logizomechanophobia" and "anthrophobia."

B. During Reading - Translation Writing

During Reading

Systematically interrupting students at significant paragraph boundaries may help some readers to process information actively. For the fluent or gifted student, such interruptions are probably unnessary and even irritating. However, for many students, reflecting on small portions of the text is helpful, particularly during the early stages of a content unit when they are adjusting to the author's style. Translation Writing (Cunningham et al., 1981) is a strategy that can be used to guide students' reading by periodically stopping to reflect on ideas and recast them in students' own words. Again, an excerpt from "Find Your Phobia" will be used to demonstrate translation writing.

Translation Writing

Step One: Listening to or reading a paragraph

Have students read or listen to a paragraph from the text.

Tell them that they are going to compose a translation of the paragraph in their own words.

Step Two: Generating a main idea in 20 words or less

Display the first paragraph and 20 blanks of equal length and have students generate a single sentence of the main idea in the paragraph in 20 or fewer words. (They can do this in teams or small groups). For Example:

"Most of these phobias spring from an unpleasant childhood experience, often reactivated by something unrelated to the phobia itself, such as a bad marriage or an unpleasant job."

Students' Translation

Phobias	may	be	related	to
a	bad	childhood	but	they
become	a	problem	later	due
to	other	bad	experiences.	

Step Three: Translating another paragraph

Introduce the next paragraph and have students compose another translation. In some cases, this next statement may be a synthesis of both paragraphs.

"The best way to deal with phobias is not to force the person to live with them. Desensitization of the individual to the phobic situation is the best treatment."

Students' Translation

Helping	a	person	become	less
sensitive	to	phobic	situations	is
the	best	treatment.		

This translated version of the text serves as a good introduction to independent reading. Students generally view the translation task as a manageable one since they have to write a sentence of only 20 or fewer words. These sentence summaries can then become part of their notes for a content unit.

C. After Reading - Reacting

After Reading

1. Literal level questions:

This is undoubtedly the most neglected stage of the reading process in terms of guidance provided for the reader. As suggested earlier, literal level questions usually follow a reading selection yet students often ignore these unless answers to them are required by the teacher. Unfortunately, literal post-questions allow few opportunities for the reader to make any critical judgments about the selection.

2. Evaluation:

In contrast to literal questions, having students evaluate some aspect of a selection such as a character's motives using a concrete rating device provides a good springboard for discussion.

Reacting

Example: Polar Opposites

This strategy is based on an adaptation of the semantic differential scale for measuring attitudes toward reading and other topics (Alexander and Filler, 1976). The idea for using this scale as a post-reading discussion guide was stimulated by a research report on critical reading (Anders, Dulin, and Greenwald, 1980).

After reading a story or content selection, students are asked to react to a particular character or event along contrasting dimensions such as "happy" versus "sad," "warm" versus "cold." These unambiguous ratings provide a concrete basis for discussing characters or events and supporting one's rating by referring back to examples in the text. For example, if you were going to have students read this story about a phobic person, a polar opposites rating scale might be used to stimulate critical discussion.

"It was their first date. John arrived at Marilyn's plush Honolulu condo only to discover that it was located on the 27th floor of a 40 story high rise. His hand trembled as he pressed the intercom button announcing his arrival to Marilyn's apartment."

"When she opened the door, Marilyn noticed that John looked pale and drawn. 'Are you okay?' she asked. 'Oh yes,' John replied. 'Just a little tired, that's all.' 'Listen,' he said, 'where's the nearest stairway exit?' 'What?' Marilyn asked, confused by his question. He had seemed like a nice guy at the office but now she was having second thoughts. 'It's just down the hall but the elevator is faster' she quipped. 'After all, this is the 27th floor.'

As the evening progressed, John's condition got worse. During dinner, his conversation hovered around a disturbing obsession with high rise fires and he barely touched the Quiche. Marilyn thought to herself, what a blunder, this guy really is a turkey. When she suggested they have after dinner drinks in the revolving restaurant on the 40th floor, John said he wasn't feeling well and would have to leave."

Following students' reading of the selection they would receive the following contrasting statements and be asked to rate John along a continuum of opposites.

John is ...

normal	5	4	3	2	1	abnormal
brave	5	4	3	2	1	afraid
considerate	5	4	3	2	1	inconsiderate

Once students have completed their rating on John they can then defend the score they give him by referring to specific examples from the text that reveal his character or the phobia that seems to influence his actions. This may lead to discussion of the particular phobia that John suffers from along with additional reading in the Health text to identify possible causes and cures. This is clearly a more exciting way to approach the text than literal post-questions.

III. Summary

In summary, each of the three strategies introduced helps students move beyond merely a literal level of understanding. Context Redefinition, Translation Writing, and Polar Opposites are just a few of the many pre-reading, reading, and post-reading strategies described in recent methods texts and journal articles. If you search reading periodicals with the lesson framework described in this article in mind you will undoubtedly find a number of additional strategies to use and modify according to your won creative teaching style.

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SHOULD WE TEACH STUDY SKILLS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

William Christen
Arizona State University

Absolutely! Not only should we have a systematic approach for teaching study skills in the secondary grades, we should begin the training as early as first grade. A school program that includes study skills in addition to the other subjects taught is a must.

WHY THE CONCERN ABOUT STUDY SKILLS?

Why the concern about study skills training for the secondary school student? Is it because secondary teachers assume these skills have been taught already and find students unable to do the work in their classes? Is it because the secondary teachers have not been trained in the area of study skills and are unable to incorporate the skills in their classrooms? Is it because many students aren't able to demonstrate the ability to carry on independent study? Perhaps it is some of each and there may be other reasons that are not mentioned. In any case, it is evident that a large number of secondary aged students are not being trained in such basic skills as notetaking, time management, test preparation, using the PREP Reading/Study System, and many others.

Teachers are aware, however, of the number of students unable to cope with their studies. Increasingly, more and more secondary aged students are ditching class or leaving school altogether. One reason for these decisions is the frustration they encounter in their studies. Constant failure or inability to complete assignments lead to a condition with which many students are unable to deal. For many, it is as basic as being unable to read the text material used in their classes. The inability of students to cope with an increasing reading demand is overpowering for many, especially if it is beyond their capacity to comprehend. Others who are able to read efficiently and effectively possess a primary tool needed to complete their tasks. But for most students study skills training would give them a resource of basic tools for use in their studies as well as for future use. Confirmation of the adequacy of the usefulness of teaching study skill techniques and their solution to school performance is well demonstrated in the literature.

WHY THE NEED FOR STUDY SKILLS?

For students to survive in the world they must learn to provide the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to complete independent activities. They must learn how to sort out information being received, separate ideas from each other, and retain those that are needed to com-

plete assignments. They must be able to reconstruct ideas as well as pull together from several sources information to complete a task. They must learn how to set goals, learn efficient ways to meet their goals, and work to become efficient, flexible readers, expand their vocabularies, comprehend more difficult material over time, and learn how to critical thinkers. And, students must be exposed to study activities that have specific relevancy to study-type activities. These activities we call study skills.

An examination of the literature reveals the relationship of reading and study skills. While reading can be performed without the process of study, study skills acquisition assumes the ability to read. Further, persons who are reading at or near grade level can be assisted in their studies by learning the study skills we will present in this paper.

WHAT STUDY SKILLS SHOULD BE TAUGHT?

What study skills should be taught in the secondary schools and when? Ideally the study skills component could be taught concurrently in a reading course usually taught at the seventh or eighth grade level or could be incorporated in a seventh grade English or language arts course. In addition, the entire faculty should be trained in the understanding of each of the study skills presented to the students in order to assist these students in using those study skills in their classes. The link between learning the study skills, like notetaking, and applying these skills to the various content areas needs to be facilitated by the classroom teacher. The entire process should be repeated and enhanced in the tenth grade in a formal setting and it should be reinforced by the faculty in all grades when appropriate.

To be specific about what study skills should be taught, I have developed nine skill building themes around which specific skills need to be covered. The themes and specific skills are:

- to locate information: through learning how to use tables of contents, indexes, reader's guides, Thessaurus', dictionaries, encyclopedias, almanacs, libraries and catalogues, and other informational resources.

- to select information: by recognizing its significance as a main idea and supporting detail.

- to organize and remember information: through the use of a vocabulary system, learning how to summarize, outline, follow organizational patterns, and sharpen listening skills.

- to understand how to interpret graphic aids: by learning how to use charts, diagrams, tables, maps, graphs, cartoons, and pictures to gain a better understanding of the message being

delivered by the writer.

- to follow simple and complex written and oral directions: by learning how to follow and understand class assignments, complete class projects, participate in class activities, and understand written directions found in textbooks, journals, and assignment sheets.

- to develop reading flexibility: by learning how to read with a purpose in mind and as a result, use the appropriate reading techniques including slow, careful reading, rapid reading, using skimming and scanning techniques, and by using a reading/study system like PREP, SQ3R.

- to retrieve information: by explaining the concept of short-term memory (recall) or long-term memory (retrieval), the importance of concentration, the use of memory aids, how to study for exams, and how to apply ideas learned to real life experiences.

- to use time wisely: through understanding the basic concepts of time management and learning how to budget time.

- to use effective writing skills: by learning how to use writing as a way of communicating, through learning pre-writing skills, how to find information, how to write a theme, term paper, and basic research project, and how to use the library.

By systematically attending to teaching these basic learning and life skills, we are giving our students a set of tools that will prove useful in their studies and in their work after their school years. But, in order to accomplish this task, administrators, teachers, school boards, and teacher educators must agree that these skills are essential to a student's experience in school. Once agreed upon, a program in study skills can be established. In the final analysis though, what students get out of a study skills program is what they and their teachers put into it. Through dedicated effort on their part we can expect our students to perform more effectively and efficiently as a result of a study skills program.

BILINGUAL ACQUISITION AND BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION

Eugene E. Garcia
Arizona State University

BILINGUAL ACQUISITION

It seems clear that a child does learn more than one linguistic communicative form in many societies throughout the world. Sorenson (1967) described the acquisition of three to four languages by young children who lived in the Northwest Amazon region of South America. Although the Tukano tribal language serves as the lingua franca in the area, there continue to exist some 25 clearly distinguishable linguistic groups in this Brazilian-Columbian border region. In the United States, Skrabanek (1970) reported the continued acquisition and support of both English and Spanish language systems among young preschool children of the Southwest for the last hundred years with no indication that this phenomenon will be disrupted. Although not apparent from a cursory scanning of linguistic literature, research with bilinguals is not a recent subtopic of linguistic or psychological inquiry. Ronjat (1913) reported the development of French and German in his own son. Finding little deleterious effects of bilingual development, he attributed such positive outcomes to the separation of the languages. In this particular case, one parent consistently spoke French and the other German. Pavlovitch (1920) also reported the development of two languages, French and Serbian, in his son. Similarly, languages were separated among individuals. The languages reportedly developed simultaneously with minimal confusion. Geissler (1938) reported anecdotally, that as a teacher of foreign languages he observed young children acquire up to four languages simultaneously without difficulty. It is only Smith (1935), in a study of missionary families who spoke English and Chinese, who reported difficulty during simultaneous acquisition. This difficulty was apparent in the language mixing character of the children's speech.

One of the first systematic investigations of bilingual acquisition in young children was reported by Leopold (1939, 1947, 1949a, 1949b). This author set out to study the simultaneous acquisition of English and German in his own daughter. The initial descriptive reports indicated that as the child was exposed to both languages during infancy, she seemed to weld both languages into one system during initial language production periods. For instance, early language forms were characterized by free mixing. Language production during later periods seem to indicate that the use of English and German grammatical forms developed independently.

More recent studies have systematically addressed several issues relevant to bilingual acquisition. Carrow (1971, 1972) restricted her study to the receptive domain of young bilingual Mexican-American

children in the Southwest. Children (ages 3 years 10 months to 6 years 9 months) from bilingual Spanish-English home environments were administered the Auditory Test for Language Comprehension. This test consists of a series of pictures representing referential categories that can be signaled by words, morphological constructions, grammatical categories and syntactical structures. These include verbs, adjectives, adverbs, nouns, pronouns, morphological endings, prepositions, interrogatives and syntactic complexity in both languages. A comparison of English and Spanish comprehension on this task for bilinguals revealed (Carrow, 1971): (1) linguistically, children were very heterogeneous; some scored better in one language than another, others were equal in both; (2) a greater proportion of children scored higher on these measures in both languages. (This was the case though Spanish was not the used medium of instruction for children who were in educational programs.)

In a cross-sectional comparison of English and bilingual, Spanish-English children (ages 3 years 10 months to 6 years 9 months), Carrow (1972) reported a positive developmental trend for both Spanish and English in bilingual children. Additionally, bilingual children tended to score lower than monolingual children on English measures during ages 3 years 10 months to 5 years 9 months; but for the final age comparison group (6 years 9 months), bilingual and monolingual did not differ significantly on these same English measures. These combined results seem to indicate that at the receptive level, Spanish-English bilingual children were: (a) progressing (increasing their competence) in both Spanish and English: (b) heterogeneous as a group, favoring one language (typically English) over another; and, (c) "lagged" behind monolingual children in their acquisition of English, but, eventually "caught up." Although there are obvious constraints to the specific conclusion reported above, and their generalizations to other populations of bilingual children, they do offer some empirical information relevant to the study of early childhood bilingual development.

With respect to expressive development, Padilla and Liebmen (1975) described a longitudinal analysis of Spanish-English acquisition in two, three-year-old bilingual children. These researchers followed the model of Brown (1973) in recording linguistic interactions of children over a five month period. By an analysis of several dependent linguistic variables (phonological, grammatical, syntactic, and semantic characteristics) over the time period, they observed gains in both languages although several English forms were evident while similar Spanish forms were not. They also reported the differentiation of linguistic systems at phonological, lexical and syntactic levels. They conclude:

> "the appropriate use of both languages even in mixed utterances was evidence, that is correct word order was preserved. For example, there were no occurrences of 'raining esta' or 'es a baby.' There was also absence of the redundance of unnessary words which might tend to confuse meaning." (p. 51)

Garcia (1980a) reported developmental data related to the acquisition of Spanish and English for Spanish-English bilingual preschoolers (3-to-4-year-old) and the acquisition of English for a group of matched speakers of English only. The result of that study can be summarized as follows: (a) acquisition of both Spanish and English was advanced based on the quantity and quality of obtained morphological and syntactic instances of language productions; (b) English was more advanced than Spanish on these same measures and (c) there was no quantitative or qualitative difference between Spanish-English bilingual children and matched English-only controls on English language productions.

Huerta (1977) has provided a report of a longitudinal analysis for a Spanish-English, bilingual, 2-year-old child. She observed a similar pattern of continuous Spanish-English development, although identifiable stages appeared in which one language forged ahead of the other. Moreover, she recognized a significant occurrence of mixed language utterances which made use of both Spanish and English morphology. In every case these mixed linguistic utterances were well formed and communicative. Garcia, Maez, and Gonzalez (1980), in a national study of bilingual children aged four, five, and six years, found differences in the relative occurrences of switched language utterances in different areas of the country. That is, bilingual, Spanish-English children from Texas, Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico, showed higher (15-20%) incidence of language switched utterances, than children from California, Illinois, New York or Florida, especially at pre-kindergarten levels. These findings suggest that some children may very well develop an "interlanguage," in addition to the acquisition of two independent language systems which are found later in development.

The above "developmental" findings can capsulized succinctly but not without acknowledging their tentative nature:

(1) Children can and do acquire more than one language during early childhood.

(2) The acquisition of two languages need not hamper, developmentally, the acquisition of either language.

(3) The acquisition of two languages can be parallel, but need not be. That is, the qualitative character of one language may lag behind, surge ahead, or develop simultaneously with the other language.

(4) The acquisition of two languages may result in an "interlanguage', incorporating structural aspects of both languages. This need not be the case. That is, languages may develop separately with "mixed" forms a rarity.

A careful review of the above conclusions indicate that except for (1) and (2), contradictions concerning the empirical reports regarding the nature of bilingualism in early childhood are the rule, rather than the desired exception. If one disregards the possible procedural incongruencies in accounting for such contradictions, (and, at the present time this is not a recommended strategy,) what conclusions are actually possible?

If forced to make any statement regarding these discrepancies in the data, it seems defensible to suggest the overall importance of the social environment in accounting for the specific discrepancies regarding the parallel vs nonparallel development (#3 above) and the separate vs interlanguage development (#4 above), may very well have their origin in the differential bilingual social milieus occupied by individual or groups of children during early childhood. The task awaiting empirical researchers following such a theoretical thrust is to isolate these variables which individually or as a group directly or indirectly influence bilingual acquisition.

WHY BILINGUAL EDUCATION?

1975: Rusota E. Cota, Chairperson
National Advisory Council in Bilingual Education

"It has always been my heartfelt notion that any endeavor must, with deference to the past, develop and expand to insure success and progress. With this premise in mind, and in an attempt to insure the continued success of bilingual-multicultural education, school and community personnel must view cultural and linguistic differences between children as positive attributes on which to build." (Cota, 1971, p. 1)

1975: T. H. Bell
U. S. Commissioner of Education

"The Office of Education is proud of its program of bilingual-bicultural education. It responds to a critical need of many citizens of this country - citizens who are making an important contribution to the culture of the United States. If we continue to recognize and captialize on the culture and linguistic diversity or the diversity of the nation in this way, I foresee a growing impact of this program on national policy." (Bell, 1975)

1977: Joel Epstein
Washington Post staff writer

> "Bilingual education is...a jobs program. It's fought for because it's a way of giving jobs and recognition and status to Spanish speakers, who traditionally have been at the lowest end of the socioeconomic pole. The issue is not the unquestionable importance of ethnicity in individual lives...the question is the federal role. Is it a federal responsibility to finance and promote attachment to ethnic languages and culture? Why?... Would the result be more harmony and more discord in American society?" (Epstein, 1977, C1)

Historically, these comments summarize the enthusiasm and controversy that has characterized bilingual education in our public schools. Although clearly not initiated in 1967, a national focus on bilingual education occurred during that year due to the adoption of Title VII (amendment to the 1965 ESE Act) bilingual education legislation. Earlier in that decade, President Lyndon Johnson had declared a "War on Poverty." At the time of intense racial rioting both in the Midwest and the West, federal intervention in many educational arenas was proposed and adopted. In this initiative, Title VII legislation provided for the funding of innovative projects which would "demonstrate effective ways of providing for children of limited English-speaking ability, instruction designed to enable them, while using their native language, to achieve competence in the English language" (Amendment to the 1965 ESE Act, 1967). These programs were to deal directly with the educational handicaps of non-English speaking children by acknowledging language differences as a key determinant of educational liability in English public schools.

Not solely bolstered by federal and state legislation, bilingual education received impetus from adjudication of various educationally related questions in the courts. Notably, the 1974 Lau, et al. vs. Nichols, et al. decision mandated public schools who serve limited English speaking children to provide equal educational opportunity for these populations. Although not specifically mandating bilingual education as a remedy, it clearly left this approach as a possibility. School districts wherever linguistic minority children formed even the smallest percentage of school aged children looked to bilingual education as their Lau remedy.

Following these national movements in the direction of bilingual education, numerous state legislatures (Massachusetts, Illinois, Texas, California, New York, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, to name a few) and local school districts adopted policy and guideline statements concerning bilingual education for those children for whom instruction in English had proven educationally hazardous (Waggoner, 1977). As for most educational initiatives, the influence of bilingual education on the children it has served remains difficult to assess and most often a

pawn in political dialogue related to almost all facets of national life. Epstein (1977) in his overview and critique of bilingual education, (as cited in the introductory comments), raised critical questions concerning the educational and political consequences of bilingual education. Although such programs were conceived by many to be the champions of linguistic minority children, such programmatic efforts remain relatively few in number, diverse in form, and questionable in function. What is crystal clear is that bilingual education has been and continues to be one of the major educational initiatives of the last two decades in this country. It has received national attention as evidenced by its social, political and judicial attention at almost every level of government. Although its educational value is still to be judged, its presence in the educational arena has changed the complexion of that arena significantly in areas of curriculum and instruction personnel. In this sense, bilingualism has clearly made its mark on an important institution of this society.

WHAT IS BILINGUAL EDUCATION?

Specific implementations of educational programming for linguistic minority children have taken various forms, themselves based on various conceptual and pragmatic issues related to formal instruction of language and second language. There does seem to exist two general extreme categories of bilingual education endeavors marked by the existence or non-existence of two languages within the formal curriculum.

Immersion Programs

These programs are exemplified by the Canadian model, the "St. Lambert experiment," reported by Lambert and Tucker (1972). This programmatic approach involves the exclusive use of the student's second language within the formal educational curriculum. Students are treated as if they were native speakers of the second language. As Lambert and Tucker reported, this type of program, in French for native born English speakers, was an overall educational success as measured by common academic indices: children acquired both English and French linguistic skills and did not differ from monolingual English (attending English language schools) or monolingual French (attending French language schools) on various measures of academic and intellectual functioning. These results clearly conflicted with the findings of similar "immersion" efforts in this country. Prior to the 1967 bilingual legislation, U. S. educational policy with respect to linguistic minority groups could be described as immersion in nature.

Non-Immersion Programs

These programs consider as important the existence of both the native language and second language (English) within the educational

curriculum. Usually instruction begins in the native language which is fades over a number of years into the second language. But, it is common to find both languages treated as educationally important, although the specific quantity and quality of bilingual instruction may differ dramatically across these programs.

The variety of non-immersion bilingual education programs is, of course, unlimited. Yet, several models of such programs will be described here so as to attempt a clearer understanding of such variability (See Fishman and Lovaas, 1970; John and Horner, 1971; and Pacheco, 1973, for further detailed descriptions).

a. Transition/ESL Programs

These programs concentrate on using the native language as a bridge to the total immersion of the non-English speaker in an eventual total English curriculum. Characteristics of such programs include:

1. Specific concern for teaching of English language in a formal sense;

2. Remedial/compensatory ("catch-up") perspective;

3. Native language speaking aides used extensively in lieu of bilingual teaching staff;

4. Native language instruction, non-existent in a formal sense;

5. Overall curriculum not integrated with aspects of ESL program. (ESL instruction is taught as a separate curricular unit.)

6. Financial burden for programs borne by federal, state and local district monies.

b. Transition/Maintenance Programs

These programs concern themselves with the development of two linguistic systems and are most likely to also consider as important the general "cultural" attributes of the non-English speaking community. The objectives of the programs may be an eventual total English immersion or the continued development of both languages in future grades. Characteristics of these programs include:

1. Team teaching, pairing monolingual English and

bilingual professional staff, or single bilingual professional classroom staffing;

2. Native language used extensively in subject content areas;

3. Instruction of "language" (both aspects of the native language and English) more likely integrated into various subject content areas;

4. Extensive effort to incorporate relevant "cultural" lessons in the curriculum. These lessons usually take on a multicultural characteristic.

5. Monolingual English children included in the class make-up and given instruction in the non-English speaking children's language.

6. Monolingual English children of the same ethnic group as the non-English children encouraged to participate in an attempt to "restore" the native language.

7. Provoking slight to severe criticism from educational and non-educational community members related to the acceptance of language other than English in the public schooling process.

8. Financial burden for these programs borne almost exclusively by federal and state resources; rarely by local district resources.

The heterogeneity of programmatic efforts which exist in bilingual education are also common to other educational curriculum areas such as language arts, mathematics, and social studies. What makes the heterogeneity significantly different is the compounded relevancy of the language(s) of instruction. Such increased diversity is likely a function of the children themselves (their linguistic abilities), interpretation of federal, state and local mandates, school district staffing, availability of resources, and the specific prevailing community attitudes towards these programs. In the United States, it seems appropriate to conclude, in consideration of such determining factors, that Immersion programs are rare while both the Transition/ESL and Transition/Maintenance programs share equal popularity. (Within the public school sector, I am unaware of any truly bilingual program, K-12, whose clear objective is equal linguistic proficiency in academic areas at the time of graduation.) Therefore, the present definition of bilingual education reflects exactly

the ambiguousness that exists programmatically.

IMPLICATIONS OF EMPIRICAL EVALUATIONS FOR BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION

As indicated previously, bilingual education legislation began a nationwide trend of great significance. As with many educational trends, this trend has as its impetus social and political forces. It was not a program based on a long history of sound empirical research related to bilingual development and bilingual education. Instead, it was a movement cognizant of a new hope for bilingual populations who had previously been ignored. It was never clear that bilingual education would provide effective educational programming; but, it was clear that the "traditional" program was unsuccessful. Some 10-12 years after this initiative, it seems appropriate to review briefly educational endeavor and its relationship to specific and related empirical research which it has directly or indirectly spawned. In doing so, I am cognizant of the investigatory paradox: empirical investigations (research) of applied/educational phenomenon most often generate more "new" questions without providing substantive answers to questions they are meant to address. Research in bilingual education is no exception to this paradox.

General Implications

The direct historically relevant question reflects the general intent of bilingual education programs: Does bilingual education benefit those children it serves to a larger degree than "traditional" educational efforts? This question which seemingly requires answering and seeking that answer has produced a relevant body of research literature. Unfortunately, researchers of these studies are first to admit that the number of variables influencing the evaluation of bilingual education are formidable. The diversity of the linguistic population, curriculum content, teaching models, program resources, quantity and quality of staffing, and degree of community support does not make any single statement concerning the efficacy of bilingual education. This is not to suggest that such evaluative research is unavailable. However, it is enough to caution the acceptability of generalized conclusions concerning the educational effectiveness of bilingual education (or most educational programs in general).

Lambert and Tucker (1972) provide one of the few extensive evaluation efforts related to a bilingual education effort. Recall that the program evaluated, "the St. Lambert experiment," involved the total immersion of native English speaking children in an elementary French school experience. Although the formal educational program did not incorporate English as a topic of curricular importance, these children continued to live in home environments almost totally dominated by English speakers. The evaluation of the program was longitudinal in nature and obtained several measures of the children's progress academic-

ally, linguistically, and intellectually, which were compared with those of children participating in monolingual English and French educational programs who were equated across several relevant indices: (1) age, (2) general intelligence, (3) socioeconomic status, and (4) family motivation for academic success.

The effects of the program were overwhelmingly positive. First very few substantive differences between experimental (bilingual) and control (English and French) groups were reported across the multitude of measures obtained. Some differences were observed during the first one or two years, especially differences between bilinguals and monolingual French groups. By the fifth year, no substantive differences in intellectual, academic or linguistic measures were apparent across groups. A later report by Bruck, Lambert and Tucker (1974) on these same groups, after seven years, found the same pattern of positive results.

It seems difficult to argue with these extremely impressive results. Children who began schooling in a language foreign to their own homes were able to acquire and achieve the same educational objectives in two languages without detrimental effects and within the same temporal period as those children participating in "traditional" monolingual programs. Similar results of programs in Canada have been informally and formally (Barik and Swain, 1975) replicated. Thus, this immersion model has been adopted extensively throughout the French/English speaking provinces of Canada.

Empirical evaluation of bilingual education efforts in this country are not as clear cut. Cohen (1974) reported one of the first detailed description and evaluation of bilingual programs which involved Mexican-American children. The analysis concerned two bilingual education programs: The Redwood City Project and The Culver City Project.

Redwood City Project

Redwood City, California is a city with a substantially large population of Mexican-Americans. The bilingual education program was not an immersion model. Classes were made up of both Mexican-American and Anglo children with the languages of instruction, Spanish and English. Several academic and linguistic measures indicated the following:

a. Anglo students were comparable to other Anglo controls in English measures.

b. Anglo students did poorly on all Spanish measures.

c. Mexican-American students did generally as well as Mexican-American controls on English measures.

d. Mexican-American students did better than their

controls on Spanish measures.

e. Anglo students generally outscored Mexican-American bilingual and control students on all English measures.

Culver City Project

Culver City is a city within the Los Angeles, California area. This project attempted to replicate procedurally and functionally the impressive results of the Canadian program discussed earlier. Spanish was introduced as the language of instruction in Kindergarten for a group of Anglo, native English speaking children. At first grade, Mexican-American, Spanish-speaking children were incorporated into the class. Although this project failed to incorporate appropriate control groups, the following results were reported after first grade between the bilingual immersion group and monolingual English controls:

a. There was no significant difference between the two groups on measures of English language development and reading.

b. There was no significant difference between the two groups on measures of quantitative (mathematics) development.

The results of Cohen's work were not as clear or at least not as comprehensive as that of Lambert. It leaves unanswered crucial questions related to the benefits of bilingual education accrued by linguistic minority children, the main target of bilingual education in this country. A more recent and thorough report concerning the significance of bilingual education was commissioned and presented to the Congress of the United States. This report attempted to evaluate the specific educational influence of bilingual education programming on linguistic minority children. In effect, it attempted to directly answer the important question posed earlier as it relates to the thousands of bilingual children who have participated in the federally funded efforts of the last 10-12 years.

The Air Report

In 1974, the Office of Education, Department of Health Education and Welfare, contracted with the American Institutes for Research (AIR) to conduct an evaluation study of major proportion related to the federally funded initiatives in bilingual education. This exhaustive report was presented in April of 1977 and sent ripples of praise and criticism throughout the educational community. The study took as its subjects a stratified sample of 38 Spanish/English bilingual education sites who were in their fourth or fifth year of

federal funding during the 1975-76 academic year. Second through sixth grade classrooms, inclusive of children, teachers, teacher-aides, administrators and parents were considered as providers of important empirical information in the overall evaluative design. As comparisons, classrooms in the same locale containing students matched, as equally as possible, on ethnic background, linguistic competence and socioeconomic status, were included in a two-group pretest/posttest design. The final sample consisted of 11,073 students, in 384 classrooms, in 150 schools, in 38 separate sites. Moreover, scores on nationally normed achievement tests were used for academic expectancy comparisons.

This effort produced an abundance of empirical information describing critical features of these federally funded projects. Following is a summary of the findings of this report:

1. Although 75% of the participants in the bilingual education programs included in the study were Hispanic, approximately 60% of these students were judged by their teachers as English dominant.

2. Two-thirds of the bilingual teachers and aides reported themselves to be "native-like" Spanish/English bilinguals. Teacher experience in the program was at a minimum of two years with either a bilingual or regular teacher's credential.

3. The average cost per pupil to the bilingual program was $310 (this was in addition to normal district per-pupil costs).

4. Academic achiement measures indicated:

   a. Average Fall 1975 to Spring 1976 achievement gains in English Language Arts for Title VII Hispanic students were not superior to those of non-Title VII Hispanic students.

   b. Title VII Hispanic students who were judged to be Spanish monolingual by their teachers (for test and questionnaire administration purposes) showed no gains in English Language Arts achievement between pretest and posttest with respect to national norms.

   c. Title VII white non-Hispanic student pretest and posttest means showed that the relative standing of these students on English Language Arts declined slightly between pretest and

posttest in four of the five grades included in the study (grades 3, 4, and 5).

d. Title VII black student pretest and posttest means showed that the relative standing of these students on English Language Arts National norms stayed the same or increased slightly in three of the six grades included in the study (grades 2, 3, and 4).

e. Title VII Hispanic students in all grades (2 through 6) performed better than non-Title VII Hispanic students with respect to the acquisition of computational skills in mathematics.

f. Relative to national norms, the achievement gains in computational mathematics of Title VII Hispanic students who were judged to be Spanish monolingual by their teachers were greater than expected for all grades in the study.

g. White non-Hispanic and black students in Title VII classrooms demonstrated positive gains relative to national norms in computational skills in mathematics.

h. Posttest Spanish Language Arts achievement did exceed that measured by the pretest for Title VII Hispanic students but lack of suitable comparison groups of students did not permit these gains to be uniquely associated with participation in a Title VII project.

i. In regard to gains in English reading, English vocabulary, and mathematics, several Title VII and non-Title VII classrooms were found to be producing unusually effective results when compared to the rest of the sample. Thus, while educational procedures found in some Title VII classrooms resulted in such unusual gains, these gains were also found in some non-Title VII classrooms.

j. Several Title VII classrooms had students who, compared to the rest of the sample, made unusual gains in Spanish reading, vocabulary, and reading comprehension.

k. No clear trend related to the relative proportion of Hispanic and non-Hispanic students in the

> classrooms with unusually effective or unusually ineffective English reading or mathematics performance was evident. The percent of Hispanic students in classrooms unusually effective in English reading and English vocabulary ranged from 44% to 96%. The percent of Hispanic students in the classrooms unusually ineffective in these academic areas ranged from 30% to 100%. Essentially the same findings were evident with regard to mathematics performance and Spanish reading performance. (Evaluation of the Impact of ESEA Title VII Spanish/ English Bilingual Education Program, Volume I, Feb. 1977, pp. VIII-3 to VIII-5)

Any project of such magnitude, whose efforts to empirically evaluate the effect of a particular educational intervention is clearly in the best interest of the children it serves. The present evaluation more than any other published evaluation raises critical questions concerning the effectiveness of bilingual education efforts of the past decade. Unfortunately, it fails to resolve the critical question: Is bilingual education an intervention of benefit to language minority children? The failure of the evaluation to control for qualitative aspects of bilingual and traditional program efforts is a weakness which precludes clear, decisive answers to this question. Instead, the evaluation poses many more questions than it answers: Were projects administered poorly? To what extent were teachers "qualified" to implement and support program initiatives? How was the diversity of curriculum models so prevalent in bilingual education controlled? How was the adequacy of curricular implementation controlled in such comparisons? Why so much variability in academic results across the programs studied?

Therefore, although this major evaluation effort has taken a comprehensive and critical look at bilingual education in general, it in no way provides the answers to the specific questions of critical concern. Most disappointing, researchers have failed to assess the influence of bilingual education in early childhood (ages 2-6), a crucial time for the acquisition of linguistic and cognitive repertoires so significant in later educational achievement.

To conclude at this time that bilingual education programs do not differ significantly from "traditional" English language education programming in achieving academic objectives for linguistically minority children would be a gross error. Given the language diversity of this country's children and the important role of language in the education of these children, the crucial question is, "What form of bilingual education will significantly influence the education of the bilingual or potentially bilingual student?" Not until ambiguous teacher, administrative and curricular variables are sufficiently defined and subjected

to analysis will answer to this question be possible. What seems clear-cut in an evaluation of a decade of bilingual education is that bilingual education is here to stay. Its future is not linked to its comparative evaluation to traditional programming. Instead, evaluations of bilingual programs must identify the specific character of the programs which succeed, acknowledging the diversity of languages, culture, curriculum, personnel and community support which specifically define any bilingual education effort.

Specific Implications

Teaching/Learning Strategies

It is always difficult to extract from a body of research literature specific implications for an applied teaching technology. The character of controlled research environments, the uncharacteristic control of intervening variables, and the starchiness of independent variable intervention often precluded generalization of findings to "real" classrooms. Yet, within these stodgy environments of controlled experimentation and observation, information potentially of relevance to bilingual classrooms has emerged. McLaughlin's (1978) review of such research led him to conclude that many misconceptions were prevalent with respect to second language and bilingual acquisition in early childhood:

1. The young child acquires a language more quickly and easily than an adult because the child is biologically programmed to acquire languages, whereas, the adult is not.

2. The younger the child, the more skilled he/she is in acquiring a second language.

3. Second language acquisition is a qualitatively different process than first language acquisition.

4. Interference between first and second language is an inevitable and ubiquitous part of second language acquisition.

5. There is a single method of second language instruction that is most effective with all children.

6. The experience of bilingualism negatively (or positively) affects the child's intellectual development, language skills, educational attainment, emotional adjustment and/or cognitive functioning. (McLaughlin, 1978, pp. 197-205)

McLaughlin is not admitting total ignorance in concluding that the above propositions are false. Instead, he is following the strategy of any "good" scientist: Propositions which are extracted from empirical observation and experimentation are to be handled with extreme caution and doubt. It is possible that some or all of the above propositions are true, but to claim their truth at a time when supportive evidence is unavailable is unwarranted and clearly not in the best interest of future research and the applied technology of education.

Is it possible to answer any bilingual education concerns? With the above issue of caution in mind, here three questions specifically related to bilingual education and bilingual research which deserve discussion.

Will bilingual education efforts in early childhood negatively affect children's linguistic and cognitive development?

Given the data discussed extensively in the introduction, it seems clear that exposure to two language systems and subsequent proficiency in these two languages does not regard linguistic or cognitive development. That is, children who were operating at complex levels in Spanish were not "retarded" in English as compared to other "Matched" monolingual English speaking children. Moreover, bilingual preschool children did not score lower on measures of cognitive development than their "matched" monolingual English peers. Therefore, a bilingual experience in early childhood alone does not necessarily retard linguistic or cognitive development. Unfortunately, important questions still remain:

1. How are differences in the qualitative nature of the bilingual experience related to linguistic and cognitive development?

2. How are cognitive process variables related to bilingual development?

Do bilingual education efforts in early childhood positively affect linguistic and cognitive development?

Although there is evidence for the lack of negative affects of bilingual acquisition on general linguistic development, there is no evidence of advanced linguistic development for bilinguals when compared to "matched" monolinguals. That is, there is no reported increased proficiency in either language of bilingual subjects compared to native monolingual speakers of either language. Cognitively, there is important evidence that bilinguals scored significantly higher on several cognitive measures than "matched" monolingual peers. These measures tend to be those reflecting the ability to consider properties of the environment in a more

"flexible" manner: to construct more general semantic categories than monolingual peers. Critical questions remain, however:

1. Are these advantages related to bilingualism or other (potentially cultural) variables associated with bilingualism?

2. Are these advantages related to proficiency levels of bilingualism?

3. Are these advantages related to the specific languages involved and specific cognitive measures (tasks)?

Should bilingual education efforts be immersion transitions, or maintenance?

There is very little evidence on which to base even the most cautious answers to this question. Certainly previous immersion efforts have been evaluated positively for elementary school children in French/English schools of Canada. A similar conclusion for Spanish/English elementary school children in the United States is not warranted. Recall that prior to the formal funding of bilingual education at the nation level in 1968, the English immersion program was the model for the education of language minority children in U.S. public schools. That program has proven disastrous for these children (Carter, 1970).

Data from empirical efforts in bilingual and cognitive development shed some light on this question. Dulay and Burt (1972, 1974), based on the low incidence of second language efforts related to native language structure, have suggested that "incidental" teaching of second language might prove most beneficial. That is, an immersion or transition effort which allows the child to be exposed to the second language as naturally as possible without formal language instruction is suggested as the most effective strategy for second language acquisition. Alternatively, data presented elsewhere (Garcia and Madrid, 1980) suggests that a formal maintenance instruction system which reinforces the native language while at the same time formally teaching a second language produces learning in the second language without harmful effects to the native language. DeAvila and Duncan (1979) provided evidence which indicates cognitive flexibility is an attribute of only the proficient bilingual. Monolinguals and unbalanced bilinguals scored significantly lower on a Piagetian and traditional test of cognitive development than did proficient preschool bilinguals. Therefore, maintenance bilingual efforts may enhance both the acquisition of new language structures and provide advantageous cognitive benefits. Of course, sound evaluation of immersion, transition, and maintenance bilingual programs in early childhood is needed (prior to) any (even cautious) conclusions concerning the

adequacy or relative effectiveness of these strategies.

In conclusion, it remains difficult to apply directly findings concerning bilingual acquisition to bilingual education efforts in early childhood. It does seem clear that bilingual experiences need not product negative effects and may even produce positive effects. More specific conclusions have been suggested based on the research literature throughout this article. Unfortunately, more questions than answers have been generated by research. That is not as discouraging as it might seem, for such challenges will undoubtedly benefit all children who acquire the language(s) of their society during early childhood. Certainly, the variability concerning the specific character of bilingual acquisition would lead to a conclusion emphasizing the importance of social factors. That is, the specific character of the bilingual acquisition for any individual or group will have origins in the differential bilingual social milieus.

Such a strategy would not exclude the more traditional study of the acquisition of linguistic structures. Extensions to include specific social/environmental variables must be accomplished if we are to gain specific knowledge of relevance of bilingual instruction. In such a manner, the study of bilingual acquisition becomes more directly related to the needs of instructional personnel and the daily decisions they must make regarding bilingualism and education.

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SPORTS AND READING:
AFFECTIVE PROGRAMS FOR CONTENT TEACHERS

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Effective reading and thinking are congruent with affective stimulation. If what one person reads lacks emotional appeal, i.e., is unmeaningful or unmotivating, the residual effect will be short-lived and inconsequential.

One area that is provocative and has great meaning for many young people is sports. There is no question that athletes and athletics exert a major influence on people all over the world. Reggie Jackson, the renowned star of the New York Yankees, recently remarked:

> Fifty years ago it was Bogart and Cagney. Twenty-five years ago it was Elvis Presley and Chubby Checker. Now, it's the age of the athlete.

Teachers can make good use of the current passion for sports and sports figures by combining content area reading instruction with sports related written material. This approach is especially effective in getting students to become actively involved with what they read.

One of the most disconcerting problems faced by content teachers concerns, not so much students' inability to read, but their helplessness or resistance to thinking deeply about what they read and responding with some measure of critical intensity. These teachers claim most of their pupils can "bark" at print or call the words. However, they frequently fail to "come to grips" with an author's ideas and wrestle intellectually with the text. In the words of Hilda Taba, "they do not generate a 'cognitive commerce' with the printed page."

If one accepts the definition of reading as, "thinking," or a medium for employing print as a stimulus to reasoning, and if one agrees that a person can only think about something to the extent that individual has a basis of knowledge or experience concerning it, then it is not surprising many students, given their lack of knowledge and experience in various subject fields, have great difficulty thinking about, understanding, and appreciating much of what they read in school.

Moreover, for critical reasoning to occur as a consequence of reading, the material itself must suit a person. The reader must be motivated and have a background of vicarious or real-life experiences which relate to the reading assignment. These serve as the building blocks which a person uses to interpret what is read and reconstruct

or extend understanding. In the final analysis, comprehension and recall are by-products of concentration which is the outgrowth of an aroused interest on the reader's part. Bigge (1971) claimed:

> Content that is not so brilliantly structured, but still has much meaning, will be remembered in proportion to its meaning. Nonsense material is headed for extinction before the last syllable is uttered. (p. 290)

The unmeaningful interaction between many students and their textbooks and their failure to exchange ideas, opinions, or sentiments, with supplementary exposition, may account for why so many of them are quick to answer "It's boring," when asked why they do not like this or that subject. In essence, they are saying, what they have read does not speak personally to them and makes no sense to their lives. This may happen for two reasons:

1) Many students lack the language experiences to appreciate fully or understand what they are asked to read in school. Many teachers fail to consider these deficits. They overlook the need to use concrete examples as a means of introducing students to those facets of language (orthographic or vocabulary) with which they are unfamiliar.

2) Many students lack the vicarious or real-life experiences that allow them to read content based materials insightfully. Many teachers fail to relate new ideas, information, or learning experiences to students' lives by placing the aforemention in a context with which they can identify and one through which they discover some personal meaning and value.

Sports happens to be one very meaningful context for a large number of students. These youngsters have developed a wealth of language as well as vicarious or real-life experiences in sports that teachers can use as a backdrop for further learning. The former have watched live sports contests and have seen them on television as well. They have listened to broadcasters, players, or performers, describe the action or circumstances surrounding various games and events. In doing so they have acquired sophisticated vocabulary and concepts related to athletics.

Additionally, these students have accumulated a large store of facts and statistics concerning the history of sports, sports figures, rules, strategies, events and teams. Many are motivated to <u>apply</u> or

demonstrate what they know and frequently want to learn more!

Sports and content area reading instruction go hand-in-hand for several other reasons:

*Both sports and content area reading skills can promote independence, aggressiveness, assertiveness, ambitious desire for achievement, success, prestige or recognition, self-discipline and a sense of mastery.

*The two areas require sound coaching/teaching methods; good models; structured, consistent, and individualized guidance; continuous reinforcement; sequential acquisition of fundamental skills; plenty of practice; and a lifetime of development.

*The physical fitness boom has captivated men and women, young and old, able-bodied and handicapped alike. Because of this intense public interest in athletics, sports magazines, the sports sections of newspapers, biographies of sports heroes, publications containing sports quotes, superstitions, poetry, and humor can be used by teachers to accelerate youngsters' content area reading skills. They can: (1) provide students with opportunities for vocabulary and language enrichment; (2) appeal to their interests and encourage them to become active readers instead of passive word callers; (3) give students opportunities to distinguish between fact and opinion; (4) provide chances to collect and organize data; (5) prompt students to locate likenesses and differences in their reading and urge them to criticize an author's ideas or evaluate them for strengths and weaknesses; (6) inspire students to do inductive as well as deductive thinking and stimulate interpretive or creative levels of assessment; and (7) expose students to various circumstances which require them to perform problem solving operations.

Suggested Activities

Teachers can exploy sports related reading materials to supplement content curricula and motivate students to practice and apply reading/thinking skills at higher levels. The following types of activities are easily incorporated into the content areas of English, language arts, math, and social studies. These examples are meant to be whole instructional packages, but to serve as models from which classroom teachers might create their own content area programs. They should not be employed as simply paper and pencil drills. A more acceptable approach would consist of using these ideas to stimulate group dis-

cussion and provide a context wherein students are stimulated to practice content area reading or writing skills. Those teaching in lower grades can modify the language or format of these to suit their specific purposes.

Sports in English or language arts:

Using the following kinds of statements from newspapers or sports magazines, teachers can stimulate students' interest in vocabulary, language, math, and social studies while encouraging them to recognize simile or metaphor, perform deductive/inductive reasoning, and calculate solutions to arithmetic problems.

*Last year, neither Baylor nor Singleton could throw a baseball through a spider's web. Baylor's arm has always been considered as useful as adenoids.

Directions: Ask students to read the above statement and respond to the following questions.

1) Why has the author used the image of a "spider's web" to describe Baylor's and Singleton's pitching? (Metaphor)

2) What does the statement, "as useful as adenoids," mean? (Simile)

True or false: Defend your answers!

1) Baylor has the better throwing arm.
2) Singleton's arm is much stronger than Baylor's.
3) Baylor and Singleton both pitch.
4) They both play baseball.

*The favorite sports of Bruce, Harvey, Ike, and Teresa are baseball, hiking, ice skating, and tennis.

Directions: Ask students to read the above statement and keeping in mind that no person's name begins with the same letter as his or her favorite sports, respond to the following true/false statements:

1) Teresa and Harvey do not like team sports. (Explain!)

2) Harvey and Bruce do not like cold-weather sports. (Explain!)

3) What is each person's favorite sport?

*More and more ballplayers, you may have noticed, are to be seen digging handfulls of small things from their pants pockets, popping them into their mouths, executing complex masticatory maneuvers and spitting odd little flecks into the breeze.

Directions: Ask students to read the above statement and answer the following true/false questions:

1) The author is probably referring to football. (Defend your answer)

2) Masticatory maneuvers refers to jumping up and down. (Explain!)

3) The ballplayers are probably popping raisins into their mouths.

4) If you think the answer to number 3 is false, identify what the players are doing.

Sports in English/language classes:

Directions: Have students read several quotations by various sports celebrities and write their interpretations of these:

*Roger Stauback, Ex-Dallas quarterback, at a roast for Kyle Rote Jr.: "He is a great competitor. He doesn't know the meaning of the word fear....or cat....or dog."

What is Roger trying to say?_____
_____

*Vince Tralka, coach of a high school girls basketball team: "We play a man to man defense. Person to person sounds like a phone call."

What is Coach Tralka trying to say?_____
_____

*Mike Rice, Duquesne basketball coach, to a player who threatened to jump off a bridge into the Ohio River after hitting on just two of 14 shots. "Wait until tomorrow morning. You might miss the river tonight."

What is Mr. Rice trying to say?_____
_____

To teach sports poetry, have students read, for example, "To An Athlete Dying Young," by A.E. Housman, and answer the following questions:

1) What is the tone of Housman's poem?
2) What sense do you get for an athlete's future?
3) Is there any value in having been a great athlete? Why or why not?
4) What is the author's advice to those who would so dedicate themselves?
5) Does the author leave you with a feeling that fame and glory are longlasting and highly prized?
6) Write a poem of your own expressing your feelings toward a sport or great athlete.

To get students interested in reading biography introduce them to a brief episode taken from a book and used as an "interrupted" story. For example a teacher might excerpt a couple of pages from Jesse, by Jesse Owens and Paul Neimark and copy these for the class. Try and choose a portion of the story that tells of a dramatic moment in the individual's life or a part that you think is sure to "hook" the group and stimulate real interest. After reading the selection and discussing it make a couple copies of the book available to students. Give the students a date and time to report to the class on some further events in the life of Jesse Owens.

Sports in Math and Social Studies:

Have students read statements like the following and answer the questions:

*Last year Tony Dorsett ran for a total of 1,680 yards. Ron Springs ran for 1,120 yards. Robert Newhouse gained 890 yards rushing.

1) How many yards did Dorsett and Newhouse gain on the ground?

2) What is the total number of yards gained by all three runners?

3) What is the difference between the total yardage compiled by Springs and Newhouse? Between Dorsett and Springs? Between Newhouse and Dorsett?

The same three running backs caught passes totalling 650 yards for Dorsett, 598 yards for Springs, and 425 yards for Newhouse.

1) What is the total number of passing yards gained by the three

players? Is it greater or less than the total rushing yardage?

2) What is the difference between the number of yards Springs was able to gain on the ground compared to those he gained through the air?

3) Why do you suppose the totals are much less for passing as opposed to rushing?

On a map, have students locate the cities where the following famous yearly sporting events occurred then answer the questions:

1) Bing Crosby Pro/Am Golf tournament. (Monterey, California)
2) World Championship Tennis Finals. (Dallas, Texas)
3) The 1980 World Series (both cities): (Kansas City, MO. and Philadelphia, PA.)
4) Superbowl XV. (New Orleans)
5) NBA All-Star Game 1981 (Cleveland, Ohio)
6) The Kentucky Derby (Louisville, KY.)

*Which event took place in the largest city?

*Which event occurred farthest north, south, east or west?

*Which event may have been played sunshine? Rain? Snow?

*Which of the cities has a Spanish name? Where is it located?

Using Sports to teach study skills in content areas:

Directions: Identify an area of sports interest for students. This may be a specific sport, coach, team, player or general topic, e.g., The Olympics, NCAA Playoffs, The Master's Tournament, The Belmont Stakes, etc.. Select materials, or articles from newspapers and magazines which relate to these interests. Choose those that have accompanying pictures whenever possible. The teacher should preread the material.

Present the material to students using the following adaptation of Robinson's SQ_3R technique:

Survey: Create a background of experiences for reading and introduce unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts. As the students what the article is about based on their interpretations of the accompanying picture(s). After a brief discussion along these lines tell them to scan the first part of the article (column or section) and underline or circle any word or phrase they do not understand. If the student fails to identify any words or phrases during the preview the teacher asks for specific definitions and clarifies meanings. Guide students over each succeeding column or section in the same way. The student should skim headlines and pictorial captions as well.

Question: Set purposes for reading and establish interest. After the students have looked the article or material over and you have discussed the pictures, unfamiliar vocabulary, and phrases, direct them to write down two questions they might ask concerning the content. The teacher also writes two questions as a result of the prereading activity. Typically, students' questions will be literal so teachers should try to form theirs at the interpretive or inferential level.

Read: At this point students are directed to read the article or material silently and look for answers to their questions. They are also instructed to circle or underline any additional words and phrases that are unfamiliar. If students fail to do this, teachers should make a point of questioning them over those terms they suspect may be unknown or confusing and explain the importance of reading for meaning at all times.

Recite: Students are now asked to recite as much of the story or content as they can. After students paraphrase the material teachers ask if they can answer the two questions they had

posed initially. Teachers also ask students to answer the two questions they themselves have written concerning the material.

Review: If students are unsuccessful retelling the story, answering their own questions, or if they cannot respond effectively to those of the teacher, they are referred back to portions of the text that reveal required information. Teachers check for full understanding by observing any absence of main ideas or details and assisting students in uncovering these as well.

Summary

For young people who have had real and vicarious experiences in sports, these types of reading activities make sense and seem to excite their interest immediately. They not only provide a vehicle to stimulate those who are disinterested in academic content or are reluctant to read their textbooks, but they can be used equally well to strengthen reading/thinking skills of good students.

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BEGINNING READING AND WRITING IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

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Introduction

In this paper I would like to share with you some observations I made of some Spanish dominant children in two bilingual classrooms. These children, already literate in Spanish, are acquiring and developing literacy in English. I have decided to describe some of my observations because I believe that we can learn a lot about teaching children by watching children as they try to make sense of instructional activities. I also have a concern that too frequently we make suggestions for teaching practice without having watched children in actual instructional settings. Therefore I will try first to summarize some ways I have seen children working to make sense of school, and second to offer some implications for classroom instruction.

Background to Observations

Last fall I received permission from a bilingual program director in the Phoenix area to spend some time in two bilingual classrooms watching some children as they participated in English literacy activities. A second and a third grade teacher graciously allowed me, on a biweekly basis, to sit in their classrooms and to observe what was happening. I decided to target for observation two or three children in each room, so that I could consider particular children's attempts to deal with what was going on in their rooms. I chose two 3rd grade children who had come the spring before to Dysart from Mexico. In the second grade three children were identified, all of whom had been participants in the district bilingual program since kindergarten. On my visits I would go into the rooms, seat myself where I could see and hear what was going on and follow my target children taking notes on what they were doing as they participated in various activities. I will share with you both some examples of incidents that I recorded, and some of the results of individual interviewing done with each child in December. From these incidents and interviews instructional implications may be drawn.

Observations

I began in October in the third grade, with an English reading group. One of the participants in this group was Jose, a child I had targeted to watch. He had been in the United States since January of the previous school year. The group had been reading a selection called

"Goblin Story" which deals with a goblin who comes upon a cave. Hearing noises inside the cave, the goblin is afraid to go in because he does not know what is inside. The teacher stopped the children's reading and asked them what they thought was in the cave. As the six children volunteered their guesses, she wrote them on the board. By the time the children finished guessing she had a list of about 19 items.

At this point, Jose did not volunteer complete sentences in English, but he made two predictions about what might be in the cave, a tiger and a bird. When the teacher asked if anyone had any more ideas, Jose volunteered monkey. Again the teacher asked if anyone had other suggestions. Another child offered the word dog, which then Jose said, "hey" and pointed to the board where the word dog was already written. While Jose was not able to say that the word dog was up there already, he demonstrated that he understood the lesson, and that he wanted to communicate his knowledge that dog was already mentioned. He did that in the only way that he could in English which was to use a single word and to add a nonverbal signal. As a result, the teacher erased the second printing of dog. The final time the teacher asked for suggestions, Jose offered the word rooster.

The teacher then asked the children to read the list as she pointed to each word. As they read the list I observed that Jose was about half a beat behind the others, suggesting that he was getting a cue from them as to pronunciation, after which he made efforts at pronouncing. It is significant that he participated in the activity. He made a concerted effort to read the vocabulary. The teacher asked each of the children to draw a picture of what they thought was in the cave and gave them a few minutes to do the activity. As Jose finished his drawing, the teacher asked him what it was and he responded "fox." The teacher then asked him to write about the fox in the cave. He proceeded to write a short story about dos zorros en una cueva (two foxes in a cave). In this classroom children have the option to write in which ever language they choose.

The teacher conducted the activity in English. When she asked if there were any more ideas she asked the question in English. Jose was able to participate by giving names of animals in English. At this point, he was not able to write a lot of sentences in English, but he knew some vocabulary items. These were accepted by the teacher and by the rest of the children, and Jose was able to continue participating in the activity.

It is important to note one other thing before moving to the other child that I observed doing the same activity. The children in this classroom did a lot of original composing. They wrote in journals every day. On this particular day the teacher asked Jose to show me his diary. As I looked through it, I noted that most of it was written in Spanish, but there were some English words in the diary. For example,

on September 30th Jose wrote fuy a resees. Again Jose demonstrated that he was acquiring English and that he was using what he was acquiring. His spelling of recess suggested that he had some knowledge of English orthography because if he were spelling the word only from a Spanish orthographic system, the word would not be spelled this way. From the classroom context Jose acquired some knowledge of English spelling, and he tried out what he learned in his writing.

Later in the day I observed the other child, Esteban. He too participated in an English group, which was reading the same goblin story and doing a similar activity. This time, however, after the children had written individual stories the teacher asked them to read their stories to her so that she could write them on the board. After each story was written, she asked for a volunteer to read it back. At one point Esteban volunteered to read and after receiving some help from the teacher he read what was on the board. His pronunciation of many of the words was inaccurate; however, his pronunciation of the names of the animals that were brainstormed earlier was fairly exact, probably as a result of the children reviewing the names. When Esteban read his own story, it was written in Spanish except for the title "El Goblin," and the word goblin appeared several times in his text. Here is another example of a child utilizing the English that he has developed so far and using it not only orally but also in a written form.

Another example involved third grade children doing activities that focused on Halloween. These activities were conducted in English. Jose, a member of a group of six children, sat with the teacher. She wrote the words seeing, hearing, touching, tasting and smelling on the board and told the children they were going to be making books and they had to think of words that describe what you can see, hear, touch, taste and smell at Halloween. They were to begin with seeing.

The teacher asked the students to tell her some things they saw on Halloween. Jose began in Spanish - niños con máscaras. (children with masks). Each child in turn volunteered one item a person could see on Halloween. Jose gave five of the 24 examples, three of them in Spanish - niños con máscaras, niños que asustan and dulces. His last two examples were given in English, vampires and monsters. After the 24 examples were written on the board, the children read them chorally and copied them onto their own papers, after which the teacher asked for volunteers to read the list. Jose volunteered to read. Of the 24 items, 4 were written in Spanish. Although Jose's reading of the Spanish items was naturally more fluent and more accurate in terms of pronunciation than the English items, he was able to read many English items instantly and fairly accurately.

I became curious as to how many words on his list Jose knew the meaning. Was he simply pronouncing some of the words or did he know

what the words meant? When he returned to his seat I sat next to him and asked him in Spanish if I could see his paper. Jose read the list in English to me at my request and then explained to me the meaning of each word in Spanish. He was able to explain all the words but haunted house, skeletons, scarecrows and costumes. When he read "people who give me candy" he interpreted that as la gente da dulces (people give candy). He had partial meaning there. Out of this long list of vocabulary items, then, Jose knew the meaning of most of them. When I talked with him about how he knew the meaning he told me that the teacher talked about Halloween in class, the children talked about Halloween and he was aware of Halloween both in the context of school and out of school. This helped him, then, to get meaning.

A little later Esteban's group came to the English reading table to do the same activity. The teacher asked the children to think of some items they saw on Halloween. Monica began by saying "scary people." Esteban was next and interestingly enough, he gave a complete sentence - "I see boys and girls." Since he was not asked to give an example using a complete sentence, I think what Esteban did was showing pridefully that he could produce a complete English sentence. As the activity continued Esteban made more contributions in English. They were "I see candies," "lights" and "trucks." Trucks was his last example. When he said trucks the teacher responded with "How are they special on Halloween?" Esteban turned to another child in the group and said "Cómo se dice camino?" - "how do you say road" - the other child told him, "road" - and Esteban said "I see trucks in the-in the-in the road" - and the teacher wrote "trucks in the road."

As the group continued Esteban offered murciélago as an object that you can see on Halloween - The teacher said, "We've got it in English - bats," - and showed him where it was on the board. Esteban later gave the word máscaras in Spanish and that was put on the board. When everyone was finished contributing, the whole group read the list aloud. I watched Esteban and noted that he had some trouble keeping up with the group, that is, he was a little bit behind the group in his reading, but he tried to keep up and he made every effort to participate in the reading. Esteban then returned to his own desk, where he wrote some sentences about "lo que miramos en Halloween." As I looked at his writing I noted that Halloween was written in English orthography. It was not written using Spanish spelling.

The third incident to be mentioned from this third grade classroom was one that involved the use of "The Weekly Reader". The children in Esteban's reading group were called over to the reading table where they were to discuss a story about the Coast Guard. The children read the story to themselves and the teacher asked them questions about the story. As I watched Esteban I noticed that he watched the teacher's face and looked at the children, but for a while he did not participate. When the teacher asked a question about who the Coast Guard saves, Esteban

volunteered the answer, but he answered in Spanish. The teacher accepted the answer and continued to ask other questions. When she asked who in the city of El Mirage rescues or saves people, several of the children answered that the sheriff, police, fire department. Esteban raised his hand and began to talk about a movie he had seen with boats and a rescue in it.

It was my hunch that Esteban did not really understand all that was going on in terms of the discussion of who saves, but he wanted to participate so he talked about something that he had seen that was related to the topic, that is, a movie that he had seen that had a boat in it. Two things are significant, one, that he didn't understand all of what was being said, and two, that he still made an effort to participate.

The teacher then asked the children to read the story aloud in chorus which they did. Esteban followed along for the first few lines and then dropped out. When the children said the last word of the story which was helicopters, Esteban said "helicópteros" and made a comment about them in Spanish. Following this the teacher focused on the pictures and asked the children to explain what the men were doing. Esteban volunteered, explaining in Spanish rather than in English. This routine continued for two other stories. My impression of Esteban was that he was able to interpret the pictures and some of the print, but that frequently he missed some of the questions that the teachers asked and some of the conversation, particularly once that conversation left the print and the pictures. Yet he tried to participate.

After Esteban's group went back to their chairs, Jose's group was called. When the teacher directed the children to look at the pictures and asked them -- how do you know it is America, Jose pointed to the flag in the picture and said "flag" in English. When the teacher pointed to the life preserver in the picture and asked the children to tell what it is for Jose raised his hand and Spanish told a story about his family going swimming and having a life preserver with them. The teacher then moved on to a discussion of rescuing and saving people. She asked who rescued people besides the Coast Guard. Several children raised their hands, including Jose. The teacher called on three other children before she called on Jose. They mentioned the police and fire department. When Jose was asked he paused and finally said "avion." My impression was that he wasn't sure of what the topic was but that he decided to comment anyway. The teacher took his single word and mentioned briefly that sometimes airplanes are used to rescue people.

The reading activity finished with a discussion of the last story that the children read. Jose frequently raised his hand when the teacher asked questions and volunteered information in Spanish. Sometimes the information actually dealt with the question the teacher asked, sometimes the information dealt with the picture that was there and Jose's interpretation of the picture or relating of that picture to his

own experience. This behavior indicated that he had less than complete understanding of the text and less than complete understanding of the teacher's questioning, but he was making a concerted effort to understand and participate in the activity.

Let's look now at a couple of activities in the second grade classroom that also provided us some evidence about children's second language reading and writing. It was the day before Halloween and the teacher was showing me one of the children's writing projects, a project on adivinanzas or riddles. The children had written riddles to send to their penpals, the second graders in a classroom in another school. The topic of the riddles was monsters. This was a bilingual classroom, and by this time the children have had no formal reading instruction in English. Therefore when they wrote their riddles they wrote them in Spanish. What is interesting about the monster adivinanzas however is that although the riddle was written in Spanish, the characters described come from English language television and comic books, and when the children wrote the answers to the riddles the answers are written in English basically in standard English orthography. Here are some examples:

Es verde
Es masudo
Es grande
Puede aventar carros
¿ Quién es?

The Incredible Hulk

Es peludo
Tiene dos patas
Es grande
Brinca del arbol a arbol
Es feo
Cuando grita se pega en el pecho
¿ Quién es?

King Kong

Es una mujer
Puede volar
Ayuda a la gente
Tiene traje de arana. Es bonita
¿ Quién es?

Spider Woman

Es bonita
En su cabeza tiene una estrella
Ella hace cosas buenas
Tiene biquini

¿ Quién es?

Wonder Woman

What is significant about all of these riddles from the point of view of second language literacy is the English that is in the riddles. Even though the children had not had formal English reading instruction, they were aware of English in their lives and they paid attention to it in the world around them. They are reading and writing in English.

This same day three children, including Elizabeth and Sonia, whom I observed, came to the back of the room and asked me in Spanish if I could help them with a piece of seatwork they had. It was a Halloween ditto, and the items were written in English. The children's task was to read the items and to find them within the picture and color them. I asked them if they could read me some of the items in English. They said they couldn't, Elizabeth asserted that she knew no English at all. So I read the items for them, Halloween Cat, broom, ladder, moon, horseshoe, jackolantern, witch's head, shamrock. When I read the items in English they were able to find them in their dittoes. One of the children had trouble with jackolantern, horseshoe, and shamrock, but Sonia told her what they were. What is significant to me here was that the children claimed they were not able to read English, yet they could identify the English items and translate if necessary into Spanish.

These two scenes reflected the beginnings of the ability to read and write English, demonstrated by the children's ability to read and write cartoon character names. There was also an interesting contrast between willingly reading and writing cartoon figures and showing less confidence in reading vocabulary items that the children were not sure they meant. There was a qualitative difference in the way the children dealt with English that emanated from the children themselves (they wrote the riddles) and English that came from without (a ditto from adult given to children).

On another day the children's teacher used Maurice Sendak's Where the Wild Things Are, reading the book to the children in English and sharing the pictures with them. He allowed the children to respond to the pictures and to the story in either Spanish or English. The pictures in the book are wonderful, and the children made a lot of comments. English and Spanish were used. After the teacher read the book he went

through it again, asking the children to retell particular portions of the story and also to answer specific questions and to give their reactions to the story. The teacher did the activity in English but allowed the children to respond in either language. Sometimes the teacher himself used Spanish.

I was particularly interested in watching the three children that I targeted. Santiago and Sonia were identified by the teacher as interested in using English and one, Elizabeth, was identified as less eager to use English. Santiago and Sonia used English a lot in the classroom. They interacted as much as possible with me and also with the teacher in English (especially after the teacher talked to me in English). Elizabeth resisted using English and told me herself that she didn't want to speak English. In this case, whenever Elizabeth responded to a comment she responded in Spanish; she didn't volunteer English. In contrast, Santiago and Sonia reacted most frequently in English. If they were unable to express everything they wanted to in English, they changed to Spanish. It appeared that they were more willing to use English because they were somewhat guided in language choice by their teacher. When their teacher used English (in an activity such as this one for second language development), they tended to respond in English. In other activities when I had been in the room, if the teacher used mostly Spanish, Sonia and Santiago used Spanish more often.

I talked to Elizabeth at the end of the activity, and she told me that she did not understand the book when it was read to the children in English. When I asked her how she was able to answer her teacher's questions and how she was able to comment on the book, she informed me that her first grade teacher had read them the book last year but had read it to them in Spanish and she remembered the contents. While I was not convinced that Elizabeth did not understand any of the English telling of the story, I think it was probable that her teacher having previously told the story in Spanish helped her in getting meaning when she heard it in English a second time. I am calling this activity a reading activity in English even though the children were not themselves reading. The teacher was reading an English book, talking to them and getting them to respond to that talk, so I would label this an important English-as-a-second-language literacy activity. These then are the five sample activities or incidents that illustrated children's developing abilities in English literacy.

Additionally I did an interview with each child in early December. As part of each interview, I brought some print from the real world and asked all five children to respond to what I showed them. I used labels from a Coca Cola bottle, a milk carton, a Cheerios box, a McDonald's bag, a Dunkin Donuts paper bag, a Crest toothpaste container and an M and M's wrapper. All five of the children were able to read all of those labels except for M and M's and Dunkin Donuts, which only three of the children were able to tell me. However one of those three was able to tell that

M and M's was a kind of chocolate. When I asked them how they were able to read these items they told me that either they had been to McDonald's or their father had been to McDonald's; they used Crest or saw it on TV; they ate Cheerios; they drank milk; Coca-Cola was also a sign in Mexico and so on.

I also asked the children if there were signs around the school and neighborhood in English that they could read. The second graders were not able to give me specific examples. They indicated that there were some but they didn't know what they said. Of the two third graders, Esteban was able to talk about the name of the school in English. Jose was able to tell me about several signs around the school. He told me about the name of the school; that there was a stop sign near the school; that there was something about a bus and that there were some signs about putting your garbage in a particular container. He also talked about some signs in the neighborhood close to the school. He noted that across the street there was a sign about fixing televisions, and when he rode his bicycle around the neighborhood there was a sign that warned him que no se acerque al perro. This must have been a "beware of the dog" sign. Jose told me about all of these signs in Spanish (que se compongan televisiones, que ponga la basura aqui, la escuela el mirage). What is most important about these signs is that Jose was aware of the communicative intent of the English. He knew that there was English print in the community and that the print was intended to tell him something, in spite of the fact that he could not pronounce the exact words. He was reading the intent even if he wasn't reading the print.

Classroom Implications

The data related above indicate that children who are acquiring English as a second language make tremendous efforts to create sense out of instructional activities, to participate in what is going on in their classrooms, and to use the English they are developing. The following implications for instruction are based on these observations:

1. Second language acquirers make tremendous efforts to understand what is going on and to be understood by others. As teachers we need to realize this, to watch and listen carefully and to respond to what the learners are trying to tell us. A response to a question about some print may be incorrect but that response may tell us that the learner is trying to make sense of things using, for example, a picture stimulus. We must ask ourselves why the child says what he/she says and respond to the meaning the child is creating.

2. Second language acquirers learn a tremendous amount from

interacting in reading-writing activities with more fluent speakers of the language. Do not always isolate less fluent speakers-readers-writers from more fluent ones. Fluency is acquired through these contacts. Include children in second language reading-writing activities, recognizing that they won't always "get" everything that is happening but encouraging their participation.

3. Use the second language responses that children give you and build further reading-writing experiences from them. For example when Esteban came out with the whole sentence "I see trucks in the road" this sentence could have been written down and read by him and others. This sentence might then have served as a model for a group of sentences organized into what I call a semi-language experience chart in which each child completes the stimulus sentence I see _____ on Halloween. The teacher might also have the more fluent speakers off a variety of sentences about a topic, for example Halloween, and have the less fluent children use the model already given. Use children's responses to move into language experience stories.

4. Encourage children to write (compose) in their second language even if they write only isolated words or if they write using both their first and second languages. Isolated words may be put into the context of whole sentences by the teacher (example - Dracula --I see Dracula on Halloween too), and sentences written partially in one language and partially in another may be read as they are written or resaid-re-written all in the second language. If you are not bilingual yourself, get a bilingual child in your room to help you.

5. Don't put off children's second language writing (composing) until you think they have enough grammar. Start them right in.

6. Children show us (Altwerger and Goodman, 1980; Goodman, 1979) that they recognize and can read television and community print in their second language long before they are fluent speakers of the second language. This kind of print should be used for early second language reading experiences. Bring in product labels, community photos and so on. Show children that they can read some English. Set up a play store where children buy and sell products. Talk about Superman and Wonder Woman. Take dictation and

write about the characters, especially in heterogeneously mixed groups according to language ability. Have children bring in print that they can read. Teach letter sounds with familiar print. Build reading experiences on what children already know rather than on what they don't know.

7. Do not assume that because children cannot or do not respond to questions about a story in English that they do not understand the story. The children observed here and other children (Goodman and Goodman, 1978) show us that their receptive abilities in English, their abilities to understand spoken language or print, may outweigh their productive abilities in English, their abilities to produce English, to explain in English what they do understand. Allow students to tell you about a story they have read in English in their native language. If you are not bilingual yourself have one of the bilingual children in your room act as a translator.

8. Realize that there is no one to one correspondence between accurate pronunciation and understanding. Accurate pronunciation does not necessarily mean that students understand what they have pronounced. Conversely inaccurate pronunciation does not necessarily mean that students are not getting meaning.

9. Reading to children in their second language is an excellent introduction to book talk in that second language. Don't think of this as a frill; think of it as a basic. If possible, read or tell the story to children in their native language before you tell the story in their second language.

10. Above all relax a little. Realize that second language acquirers are in the process of gaining oral and written fluency in their second language and understand that they need lots of opportunities to use that second language in both oral and written forms. Appreciate and respond to their efforts and remember that goofs are a necessary part of the learning process.

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BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL EDUCATION/IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD READING DEVELOPMENT

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The number of young children currently enrolled in bilingual early childhood education has increased significantly with the continuance of Head Start programs and the introduction of bilingual day care and nursery schools. A higher number of these children are receiving developmental day care as well as instruction in content subjects such as reading. Many of these children used to receive only custodial care as they were often supervised by immediate family or by a neighbor in the barrio. However, the young bilingual-bicultural child in our society is beginning to receive more exposure to his or her own culture and language plus an insight into the American culture and language through the use of bilingual education. It is the purpose of this paper to examine the implications of bilingual-bicultural education to early childhoos education in the field of literacy development and eventually reading. Strategies for planning a program for limited English proficiency (LEP) students are addressed as well as choosing the language for the initial reading bilingual education.

In the late sixties, Congress established a compensatory bilingual education program for limited English proficiency (LEP) children. In 1968, the methodology known as bilingual education was defined as an approach that would provide education in two languages to two different participating cultural groups. Today, as many as three million children in the United States speak, read and write a language other than English and approximately 85% of these children are Hispanic. Bilingual education is designed as a facilitator to teach the children to understand, speak, read and write English and to instruct subject matter in their native language.

Bilingual early education classes have been structured very differently but generally have been characterized as one of the following as cited by Golub:

1. Mixed classes - assimilation: This is the transition-to-English model; it is not aimed at dual language skills. LEP students are immersed in monolingual, English speaking classrooms. Some English as a second language instruction is provided.

2. Separate classes - assimilation: This is a modified transitional model where LEP pupils are in separate bilingual education classrooms for their academic course work, English language, mathematics, social studies, and

science. Although the teacher and, if available, the aide are bilingual, the main emphasis is on learning to understand, speak, read, and write in English and to learn subject matter using both the English language and the pupils' native language. This model is characteristic of large urban schools where pupils can stay in the bilingual education classes until they can be placed into the monolingual English, regular school program.

3. Mixed classes - pluralism: This is a low-keyed maintenance model. It is most often considered to be the predominant bilingual education model even though the guidelines for federal funding require the transitional model. LEP pupils are supposedly placed in mixed classes, which rarely happens. Pupils are given English language proficiency and native language proficiency instruction as well as subject matter instruction in both languages until they are ready to transfer to the monolingual English, regular school program.

4. Separate classes - pluralism: This is the most radical maintenance model which can be found in Indian and Chicano schools where the ethnic language and culture is used exclusively for instruction. English is supplemental.

In all of the models that were listed, except for the last one, an LEP child is expected to make the transition into monolingual English; most elementary school children in a couple of years and most secondary school students in three years.

For the purposes of this paper, bilingual refers to Spanish and English languages, literacy development refers to reading and writing skills, and bilingual children refers to limited English proficiency children who have the potential for becoming bilingual because of their ethnic and linguistic origins and the non-English spoken in the home, church, and community.

Instructional Methodology

The most abundant research on the literacy development of LEP pupils is in the area of instructional methodology. Descriptions of reading programs generally stress the teaching of English reading in a bilingual education classroom with emphasis on oral language instruction, content reading, criterion-referenced testing, norm-referenced testing, informal reading inventories, readability formulas, and reading diagnosis (Parrish, 1979).

A topic which there is little known about teaching English reading to the child whose native language is not English is the transfer of

reading skills from one language to another (Natilicio, 1976). We do know, however, that children who are good readers in their native language will be good readers in the second language. The reverse also applies. Most bilingual reading instruction programs involve immediate immersion into English reading, or native language reading instruction first, few if any teach similar skills from both languages concurrently. Research is needed in understanding the transfer of reading skills from one language to another for determining a "best" English reading method for LEP pupils.

Carolyn Ebel (1978) observed English as a second language classes in twenty-five public and private schools to determine classroom practices in teaching English reading to LEP pupils with Puerto Rican background. Her findings concluded that: 1) no particular method or approach was prevalent in the classes; 2) oral reading was not practiced in any of the classrooms; 3) teachers did not integrate culturally relevant information into the reading lesson; 4) there was little evidence of visual materials or pupil writing on display in the classrooms, and 5) a high degree of apathy was exhibited by the teachers.

Recent research into the relationship between cultural background and cognitive style, Dixon, (1977) suggested that Mexican-American children typically display a "field dependent" cognitive style as opposed to the "field independent" cognitive style of Anglophone children. Dixon suggested that teachers should take all of this into consideration in developing their instructional strategies. Physical distance should be reduced between teacher and Chicano pupil. Peer and cross-age teaching methods should be used with Chicano pupils. Language experience and cooperation are encouraged for Chicano pupils. Mexican-American pupils also thrive in discussion classes rather than lecture, and respond to social rewards such as smiles and compliments rather than the abstract reward of grades.

Wooden and Pettibone (1973) in a comparative study of three beginning English reading programs for the Spanish-speaking child concluded that the important factors for success are careful diagnosis for each child, specific emphasis on each language skills, such as listening comprehension, spatial relations, and auditory association. The overall effectiveness of an English reading program for Spanish-speaking children can be increased significantly.

While the controversy rages in deliberating on choosing the language for initial reading instruction, Prewitt Diaz (1979) native language, second language, or dual languages, the research tends to point to specific answers. At the first grade level Canseco (1978) found in her research that there was no apparent advantage or disadvantage for bilingual, first grade, dual-language readers. Her finding also demonstrated the effectiveness of the native language approach. Huzar (1973) indicated that given an experimental group of bilingual

second and third graders who received Spanish and English reading instruction and a similar control group that received only English instruction showed no significant difference between both groups in an English reading test, grades 2 and 3. Ramirez (1979) discovered that in learning to read Spanish first, teacher behavior tended to affect student reading achievement in Spanish.

Some Considerations

The research over the past fourteen years covering literacy development of bilingual children has not yet reached maturity. We may speculate on a few generalizations:

1. Chicano, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Hispanic children who are shown respect and who are given special, specific instruction will learn to read and to write English well enough to function in regular monolingual English school programs and in many cases they will function as well as their Anglophone peers.

2. Children who are in dual language programs for the purpose of maintaining the native language (Spanish) might at some points in their education, slow down in their English literacy development. Eventually, there is a leveling. The advantages of a student's having literacy in two languages is a human resource which outweighs the possibility of a student's measured deceleration in English literacy, particularly during the middle school and junior high school years.

3. Not much is known about how LEP pupils use English literacy (reading and writing) for cognitive development in subject matter learning.

4. We know very little about how literacy skills are learned for the native language proficiency and how they are transferred to English literacy development.

5. Instructional attention and research from researchers and teachers alike are needed in written English language proficiency assessments of LEP pupils.

6. Implications for bilingual early childhood education program development is significant as research has demonstrated the need for early interventions.

Implications for Bilingual Education/Early Childhood Education

Growing up bilingual means being able to use either language in any situation. According to research, bilingual children are performing as well as others in school systems across the country. The Spanish speaking child brings many values, behaviors, culture and foremost language to the initial classroom experience. It should be the purpose of bilingual educators to assist and develop the strengths of that particular individual. The primary strength of the Spanish speaking child in early childhood education is his or her language. Therefore, oral language development will be the essential ingredient in order to begin the reading process. In addition to oral skills, the very young child needs good physical care, good nutrition, a high level of self-concept, acceptance and opportunities to move, explore and experience a stimulating environment. In consideration of the reading process later in early childhood development, it is imperative that the bilingual child receive concept formation, verbal facility and sensorimotor control. Once all of the aforementioned qualities have been met, then the young child is able to begin the reading process.

Several conditions often contribute to failure and confusion in a reading program designed for English speaking students. According to Thonis (1976):

1. A lowered sense of self-esteem from repeated feelings of inadequacy;

2. A lack of experiences in the dominant culture from which concepts specific to the English speaking community may be acquired;

3. An inadequate oral command of the English language which is the language of the instructional program;

4. An unrealistic curriculum which imposes reading and writing English before listening comprehension and speaking fluency have been established.

Very often, an inappropriate sequence and pacing of skills intensifies the difficulties of the young child who is forced to use a written symbol system for which he/she has no oral referent. The child may be struggling with sounds which cannot be perceived no can he/she comprehend vocabulary and language structures which are totally alien to him/her.

Sound difficulties may occur when the English sounds do not exist in Spanish. A Spanish-speaking child may not perceive these sounds and may substitute Spanish sounds for them (Thonis, 1976).

The young child may have a problem using certain sounds he/she does not perceive, when they exist in an unaccustomed position. For example:

"I have new choose." (shoes)

"Little bears have cups." (cubs)

Structural confusions may occur when a native speaker uses variations from his own speech pattern to form words and meaningful groups of words in English. For example:

"Today she working on the job."

"He is more big than his brother."

These examples are but a few of the potential difficulties faced by Spanish speaking students in reading programs designed for native speakers of English. In consideration of the Spanish speaker, it is important to restate that he/she is primarily a child; is unique as each child is; shares a commonality of needs as all children do and may have identifiable needs for broader experiences and for language development.

Language Experience Approach

This method is based upon the premise that a person acquires language as he experiences a specific environment. Words and expressions he/she uses to explain and to recall such experiences become his/her spoken language. Further, when the child is developmentally mature and psychologically ready to add the written forms of language, oral language and previous experience form the basis for reading. According to Thonis, this approach moves through what the pupil has encountered and thought about, to what he can say, to what the teacher can write about, and finally, to what the learner him/herself can read; that is, to transform back into his/her personal language and thought by reading. When art activities, story times, field trips and other opportunities for experiences mediated by English are provided, the child develops meanings and a language which can then make sense to him/her in written forms. Writing, then, begins with the simple copying of a pupil's short story, previously dictated by him/her and written by his/her teacher. The letter forms are practiced as needed. Finally, the language experiences approach has the advantage of using the oral language which the child brings to school and of extending both the vocabulary and structures of this language. The key is the child himself who has words with intense meanings for him alone, and who first must learn to read and to respect his own thoughts before he can go beyond to the written thoughts of others.

Choosing the Language for Initial Reading Instruction in Bilingual Education

The Reading Dilemma in Early Childhood Education

The teaching of reading to limited English proficiency (LEP) students is one of the important controversies in bilingual education theory (Cohen, 1979). The literature on reading instruction suggests two basic reading methods in extreme contrasts, the pure phonic method (Bloomfield, 1942: Chall, 1967; Fries, 1963), and the reading-for-meaning method (Chall, 1967; Flesch, 1955).

The pure phonics method implies that the child is taught the letters of the alphabet and the corresponding sounds. In that way the reader does not get the meaning of the word until the process of synthesizing is completed (Söderbergh, 1977).

The reading-for-meaning method proposes the teaching of whole words and sentences from the very beginning, thus giving the pupil at once the experiences of what are the ultimate goals of reading comprehension (Söderbergh, 1977). Flesch (1955) reported on the failure of the reading-for-meaning method and suggested that new methods of reading be created.

The controversy over reading methods confound the problem of determining the best way of teaching reading to the LEP student. In the teaching of reading in the context of bilingual education three approches have been proposed: 1) that the LEP student be introduced to reading in the native language and then in English (L2) (Goodman, 1971), 2) that the LEP students be introduced to reading in the second language, (English) (Lambert & Tucker, 1972), and 3) that the LEP students be exposed to reading in the two languages, the native language and English concurrently (Yorio, 1971).

Reading and Bilingual Education

The primary concern of bilingual educators is the LEP child who must be taught in his or her native language. These children need to be taught in a bilingual environment until they can learn subject matter in English as well as they could in their native language. Furthermore, when the transition is made to the regular monolingual English classroom, language maintenance activities in the child's native language should be available. The language of instruction should be based on student needs.

Bilingual education is not the mere reinforcement of English, as in English-as-a-second-language classrooms. Bilingual education is the teaching of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in the

native language and in English as well as learning subject matter in the native language until the child can achieve cognitive ability in English.

In transitional bilingual programs, the LEP child begins the transition from his or her native language into English, the child begins to receive more and more subject matter instruction in English. In an ideal setting, both the child's English acquisition and cognitive ability in the subject matter would be monitored to assure that the child can optimally learn the subject matter in English. During the transitional period, the children become increasingly proficient in English and able to learn subject matter taught in English. The bilingual education teacher must learn to understand and use the interaction between reading, second language proficiency, and cognitive ability in teaching reading especially in subject matter instruction.

The level of bilingualism, or acquisition of two languages, depends on whether the child has acquired both of the languages at home in a natural learning environment, or whether the child's second language was taught in school, sequentially and planned. As a result, a group of bilingual educators favors the postponement of the introduction of a learner to reading in a second language until the child is comparatively stable and mature in his or her first language (Mackay, Barkman, and Jordan, 1979).

For the child who has left his or her native country and native language, social conditions mitigate against holding off the learning of English until the child is secure in the native language. For this reason, many teachers of bilingual education believe that a student can very well learn to read in two languages concurrently. Still a third group believe that by introducing reading instruction in English early in the primary grades a process of unconscious reading habits in English is developed similar to the natural way the first language is acquired.

The Mechanics of Teaching Reading to LEP Students

The first step that the teacher must deal with is the student's oral/aural language level and syntactical patterns both in the students native language and in English. Once the students' oral/aural language level has been determined for both languages then the teacher must decide the level of reading the student should be provided in both languages. If both languages are to be used, the teacher must be careful in planning the reading program. Some of the prerequisites would include: 1) the students' ability to tell a story from memory and in sequential order, 2) the students' ability to discriminate visually between different letters and words, and 3) the students' ability to use a basic vocabulary in both languages in cognitive situations adequate to the educational materials available in the classroom. These prerequisites show the dependence of the reading process on the

oral/aural skills of the students. Because visual symbols are related to auditory and vocal symbold, the student oral language development plays a major role in the initial reading stages.

At the same time that a reading program is initiated for LEP students in their native language, English oral/aural skills must be developed. Once the decoding skills are learned in the native language they will transfer to reading skills in English without loss of time. The results of the Canadian bilingual program showed that when children who were initially taught reading in their native language were transferred to reading in the second language, they advanced further than the children who had started from the beginning on reading the second language (Lanbert and Tucker, 1972).

Because reading is dependent upon oral language, it would be unwise to initiate a reading program in English for the LEP student who has not mastered the basic cognitive skills needed in the primary grades (Carrasquillo, 1977). When teaching the second language, it is important to remember that when a student is exposed to initial reading instruction in the student's native language, the ideal situation is to begin reading instruction in the student's native language, because the student is using cognitive skills in the native language. As each cognitive skill is developed and used in the native language, it can be readily translated into the second language. Therefore, initial reading in the second language, English, should not be postponed until the student has total oral/aural skills in English. Rather, as cognitive development takes place in the native language through reading, it can then take place through reading in English.

As in speech, reading involves the recognition of symbols and the attachment of meaning to them. This interaction of what is written depends on the reader's perspective. A student will not be able to read and comprehend sentences that contain unfamiliar ideas. LEP students will only read orally as well as they speak, and should therefore be taught to read with sentences similar to the ones they would use in conversation. The best beginning material would relate to the student's real life experiences so that the student can see his or her experiences in symbolic form and identify with them.

Recommendations

1. The teacher should put primary emphasis in reading instruction for LEP students on comprehension strategies.

2. There is not any one way to teach reading. Therefore, the teacher should match teaching method with the LEP students' needs.

3. Individualized materials are very useful in reading instruction because they allow the LEP students to proceed at his/her own rate.

4. The subject of reading materials should be of high interest and relate well to the background of the LEP student.

5. The teacher's role in reading instruction is to get the LEP students moving in the right direction and provide timely and appropriate feedback.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the type of reading program to be implemented for LEP students is dependent upon the student's cognitive development as expressed through the native language and then in the second language. The goals of the reading program for the LEP students should come from the teacher's ability to diagnose the students' cognitive development in the native language and the students readiness to translate that cognitive development to English.

After the initial language of instruction has been chosen, strategies on how to diagnose the language proficiency of the child must be explained and assessed. The steps involved in planning a program for LEP students with regard to reading instruction will be addressed.

What Should Be Done When Planning a Program for LEP Students

It is important to know how to diagnose the language proficiency of the limited English proficiency (LEP) student. Some strategies for assessing this type of student will be discussed with suggestions for the implementation of a program to assist these students to increase their proficiency in English within the classroom. This is by no means a cookbook on how to deal with the limited English proficiency (LEP) student and it suggests that ultimately the teacher is to decide the appropriate program for the LEP student in the classroom.

How is the limited English proficiency (LEP) student identified?

The task of accurately assessing language proficiency of limited English proficiency (LEP) students is especially challenging since data regarding specific language assessment procedure is very limited. The task involves seeking an instrument which will measure listening, speaking, reading and writing. Each of the skills possesses the three characteristics of language: meaning (semantics), arrangement and

grammar (syntax and morphology), and sound (phonology). The best assessment of any of the language skills will encompass all three characteristics.

An instrument which was designed to assess reading, writing, listening comprehension, and speaking in English and Spanish is the Language Assessment Battery (LAB). The LAB (English and Spanish) has three levels. Each level consists of four tests as follows: Test 1 - Listening; Test 2 - Reading; Test 3 - Writing, and Test 4 - Speaking. Tests 1, 2, 3, are group administered and Test 4 is individually administered.

The Language Assessment Battery (LAB) is an outgrowth of a Consent Decree (72 Civ. 4002) entered into between the Board of Education of the City of New York on August 25, 1974. The basis for the alleged complaint was that the school which the LEP students attended provided predominantly English language instruction, and that consequently there was lower educational achievement as reflected by test scores and a slower rate of promotion.

In order to implement the Consent Decree the problem of identification and classification of Spanish-speaking and Spanish surnamed children had to be solved. The Decree specified that "an improved method of classifying shall be designed to identify those children whose English language deficiencies prevent them from effectively participating in the learning process, and who can more effectively participate in the learning process in Spanish" (72 Civ. 4002). Consequently, the Office of Educational Evaluation was commissioned to develop the Language Assessment Battery (LAB). For further information the reader may contact the Riverside Publishing Co., 1919 South Highland Ave., Lombard, Illinois, 60148.

It is important for the classroom teacher to become aware of the score the LEP student has obtained in instruments such as the LAB for several reasons. In the first place, the teacher will have some indication of the language proficiency of the young child, thus will be able to adjust the materials to meet the linguistic needs of these students. Secondly, the classroom teacher will be able to compare the progress of the children using the LAB as the database. Finally the classroom teacher will be able to use the LAB as an instrument to exit the student into mainstream courses if so desired.

Transferring Reading Skills from Spanish to English

The research on reading and the bilingual student (Cohen, 1980; Garcia, 1977; Golub, 1977; and Prewitt Diaz, 1980) has indicated that a student will transfer the reading skills from the native language to the second language. These researchers warn that in order to decide the

language the student is now cognitively stronger.

In the discussion on entry criteria into a reading program, Cohen (1980) indicated that if the student was inappropriately selected for dominant language reading in Spanish, the transference would be from a language of weakness and, therefore, ineffective. In other words, children who were placed in Spanish reading groups for developmental reading should be cognitively stronger in Spanish and, therefore, more able to build stronger reading foundations in Spanish.

This single issue, the placing of children into Spanish reading classes in order that they first acquire their reading skills in their stronger language, is the most significant goal of bilingual education. In this sense, bilingual education is a form of individualized instruction because it gives the teacher an opportunity to capitalize on students strengths.

There are the common errors which Cohen (1980) suggests in identifying the bilingual students' reading skills which might affect you as a classroom teacher. The first error occurs where partially proficient bilingual students or students with English language proficiencies that are weak but significantly stronger than their Spanish skills are inappropriately selected for instruction in Spanish. This might occur when a district uses English-only tests.

A second error occurs most often as a result in the inadvertent exclusion of non- or limited English proficiency (LEP) students. This can occur when students score very low on both parts of a test that measures proficiencies in both languages. Whereas the previous remedial situation needs English remedial reading, this situation needs Spanish remediation as a form of basic instruction.

A third error occurs when limited English proficiency students are appropriately placed in the program but are mainstreamed too quickly, a process that is unfortunately observed to a greater degree with each passing year because of the politics and misunderstnadings attached to bilingual education regulations.

The reader can ask: In which language will this young child best learn? To answer this question, cognition must be measured in both languages, offering instruction in Spanish until the child's cognitive abilities are strong enough in English to process newly presented academic information in English. The reading teacher will probably receive with the LEP student a measure of cognition. If the teacher does not receive a measure of cognitive development, it is suggested one be administered.

Recently developed cognitively-oriented dominance tests (e.g., the Language Assessment Umpire) have higher validity co-efficients than do the previously existing tests, especially when correlated to teacher

judgment. Utilizing a cognitively-based approach to the identification of dominant language, whether a standardized approach or a teacher-made approach, will result in the implementation of a transfer that is more sound and more successful because the child will be acquiring reading skills and transferring skills from their cognitively stronger language.

One of the most misunderstood aspects of bilingual education is the degree to which English as a second language (ESL) is a key to the eventual academic success of participating students. Too often ESL activities are linked to moninant language instruction. They can be even more impact-oriented under the umbrella of bilingual education than when they are conducted in the traditional manner, which sees the students isolated from the district's academic curricula. The most important role of ESL in bilingual education is that is provokes an easier transferability of developmental reading skills by introducing English vocabulary words that can be used to promote the transfer of phonics skills from Spanish to English (Cohen, 1980; Golub et al. 1980).

When do we transfer reading skills?

Spanish reading skills at various levels of difficulty can be transferred into English. As suggested earlier, Spanish phonic skills, a majority of which are directly transferable into English, can be transferred into English as they are acquired in Spanish if the students have English receptive vocabulary skills for use as examples. On a more sophisticated level, reading comprehension skills can be transferred into English in almost all instances.

The teaching of reading, when teaching the LEP student, is the responsibility of the classroom teacher as well as the reading teacher.

The teaching of reading to LEP students depends on the strategies used by the teacher. Some teachers introduce English reading skills on a skill-by-skill basis as they are mastered in Spanish. Others introduce the English reading skills in clusters, requiring mastery of a group of similar Spanish reading skills before promoting a transference of skills into English.

Monolingual English reading programs have used language, cognition, and other hierarchies for years in arranging the presentation of sequencing of reading skills. However, none of the bilingual reading programs have arranged both languages with a hierarchical system that would promote parallel development on transference on a skill-by-skill basis for every reading skills.

For the classroom teacher who is trying to assist the LEP children in developing their reading skills, the Language Experience Approach (Stauffer, 1972) is suggested. This method will allow the children to

develop reading skills on their own as an individualized experience.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the type of reading program to be implemented for LEP young children is dependent upon the children's cognitive development as expressed through the native language and then in the second language. The goals of the reading program for the LEP children should come from the teacher's ability to diagnose the students' cognitive development in the native language and the students' readiness to translate that cognitive development to English reading.

Regretably, there was no reference list submitted at the time of printing. For information concerning references, please contact the author:

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTENT AREAS

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Fluency in Reading

Question: "What makes a fluent reader?"

Answer: "Owning lots of words!"

Owning words, i.e. possessing a large reading vocabulary is the key to fluent reading. Reading is communication between two parties, author and reader. An author uses words to communicate a message to the reader. While trying to comprehend the author's message, then, a reader who possesses a large stock of words to draw upon has a distinct advantage.

Research into the relationship between vocabulary development and fluent reading supports the conclusion that a limited knowledge of word meanings will be a deterrent to comprehension. Of special note are the classic studies of Davis (1944, 1968) in which he found that the most important factor accounting for variability in reading comprehension was word knowledge. Little research has been produced of the scope and rigor of Davis' studies to refute his findings, even today. Turning specifically to the middle and upper grades, the relationship of vocabulary development and fluent reading in content area subjects is also clear. Readence, Bean, and Baldwin (1981) note:

> All groups of people, whether they be pickpockets, bridge players or educators, share special idioms and technical terminology which characterize the group. "Insiders" use this vocabulary freely and through it gain access to the collective knowledge of the group. The task of the content teacher is to help students become "insiders" whose minds move with facility in the fields of science, English, social studies or mathematics. (p. 207)

Teaching Vocabulary for Fluency

Teaching students to own words should be a primary goal of instruction at all levels and especially the middle and upper grade levels where content area vocabulary increasingly becomes the key to academic learning and success. However, even a cursory look at current instructional practices in vocabulary development reveals some glaring misconceptions. Readence and Searfoss (1970) noted the following kinds of practices in the middle and upper grades.

1. phonic analysis in combination with teaching the meanings of structural elements;

2. teaching from word lists found in commercial materials;

3. encouraging a wide reading habit;

4. using workbook exercises to develop and reinforce word meanings; and,

5. left to incidental learning i.e. vocabulary will develop without specific teacher attention.

It can be argued that each of the above teaching methods has validity in fostering vocabulary development; and, it certainly can be said that any teaching method is better than no method at all. However, there are more effective strategies by which to build vocabulary. Accumulating evidence reveals that preselected word lists, wide reading without accompanying teaching effort, and incidental teaching are not well founded in research or sound teaching practices (Manzo and Sherk, 1971-72).

Words are best learned if they are of immediate need and relevancy to students. Therefore, they should be drawn from the materials students are required to use whether they are basal readers, content texts, or trade books. The use of commercial vocabulary development programs only imposes additional new words on readers who already have enough new words to master during the course of regular daily classroom instruction. In short, vocabulary learning must be situational.

Guidelines

What guidelines should be followed in selecting vocabulary development strategies?

First, 'owning' words needs a bit more explanation. A reader can acquire words at many levels of facility. There are words you feel comfortable with and use in daily speaking and writing. When you encounter these same words in reading and listening situations, you comprehend them quickly. Other words, however, may only be understood at the reading and listening (modes) levels where context exists as an aid to comprehension. Some of these words are not firmly fixed to risk being used in speaking or in writing (expressive modes). So, truly acquiring, owning and using a word takes much time and practice. Thus, any vocabulary development program must include extensive practice involving reading, listening, speaking, and writing new words.

Second, the source of words used for vocabulary development, as mentioned earlier, is crucial. Words which have a meaning and readily discerned context are the easiest for students to acquire. Words which the reader will need to be successful in school subjects, especially content areas, are the most relevant sources for the middle and upper grades. These subjects furnish words that, if acquired, find a natural reward in the academic success students encounter by becoming an "insider".

Third, acquiring words, or any knowledge for that matter, is facilitated if the students are actively involved in the learning. By referring back to the five vocabulary practices mentioned earlier, it is easy to see that they probably violate this guideline most of all. There appears to be little student involvement in any of these practices, indeed, in a majority, even little teacher involvement!

Fourth, vocabulary development requires both teaching and reinforcing, in that order. Too many times practice exercises are not preceded by good, solid teaching. There is a tendency, especially in commercial vocabulary programs, to believe that teaching is not necessary, only practice by the students. This built-in assumption, is, or course, totally false. Reinforcement is just that, reinforcement, and should always follow teaching.

Fifth, vocabulary development, whether it is teaching or reinforcement, should be more work for students than for the teacher. Remember, as the teacher, you already know the words. Your job is not to re-teach yourself, but rather to teach the students new words. Sometimes, when looking at suggested vocabulary activities which require a degree in arts and crafts, it is hard to tell who is the teacher and who is the student!

In summary, the preceding guidelines should serve as criteria for teachers to use in choosing those vocabulary development activities which will enable students to acquire the vocabulary they need to succeed in content area subjects.

Activities

What follows next are three sample activities which were chosen because they met the guidelines suggested earlier. They represent only a few of the many available activities to teachers in published texts. Preview in Context, List-Group-Label, and Word Puzzle will be presented as sample activities. Preview in Context and List-Group-Label are teaching techniques and Word Puzzle, as with most vocabulary games, is a reinforcement activity.

Teaching Activities:

a. Preview in Context

Preview in Context (Readence, Bean, Baldwin, 1981) is an informal discovery procedure for teaching new vocabulary and draws its strength from students' prior knowledge and the analysis of the immediate contexts in which words occur. Preview in Context is a four step procedure. [1]

Step One - Preparation

Select vocabulary from a passage or chapter which students will soon read. Choose words which are both important and likely to engender confusion as students read. Present only a few words at one time to prevent the lesson from becoming tedious.

Step Two - Establishing Context

Direct students to each word and its surrounding context. Read the passage aloud to the students as they follow along in their own texts. Then, have students read the passage silently.

Step Three - Specifying Word Meaning

Use a questioning procedure which will help students identify the probable meaning of the word in its existing context, as in the following example:

1. The culpable actions of the driver resulted in a short jail sentence and the loss of his license.

Teacher : What does the sentence tell you about the word "Culpable?"

Student A: I guess the driver did something bad.

Teacher : What do you suppose he did?

Student B: He probably got drunk and ran over someone.

Teacher : How should he be treated?

[1]The example is used with permission of the authors.

Student C: He should be punished.

Teacher : Then what might a culpable action be?

Student D: Something you get punished for.

Step Four - Expanding Word Meanings

After students understand the meaning of the word in its given context, extend their understanding by briefly discussing antonyms, synonyms, or alternative contexts for the word. Such discussions will develop schemata for words and insure that students will recognize their meanings when they appear in other contexts. For example:

Teacher : Can you name other actions which we would consider culpable?

Students: Hitting a teacher, robbing a bank, not doing your homework, cheating on your income tax, smoking in school.

Teacher : Look at how "culpable" is used in your book. Are there any words we could substitute that would make the sentence mean about the same?

Students: Criminal, punishable, illegal.

b. List-Group-Label

The List-Group-Label lesson, as applied to content area subjects by Readence & Searfoss (1980), was originally conceived by Taba (1967) in her efforts to aid students in dealing with the technical vocabulary in elementary level social studies and science classes. Even though the foundation of this vocabulary development strategy is in elementary level content areas, the concept of the lesson can be broadened to improve the vocabulary and categorization skills of students in all grades.

To implement a List-Group-Label lesson, a blackboard, large sheets of paper or something comparable is needed to record the responses from the students. A one-word topic is selected by the teacher as a stimulus word and written at the top of the blackboard or paper. Topics may be drawn from an event of the school year, short story, content area unit, or

topic of current news interest.

Step One - Making a List

Students are asked to think of words or expressions related to the stimulus word. For instance, the teacher may state, "Think of any word you know that reminds you of the word "conflict." Responses are recorded and the teacher should accept all words, making no judgments (including telltale facial expressions) as to the quality of the responses. The list of words given by the students should be kept manageable. Approximately 25 words is a good number of words, depending on the stimulus word and grade level of the students. After all the students have had an opportunity to offer words, the teacher should stop the listing by saying, "I'll take two more words." Below are listed, in a simple example, the words students might generate using the stimulus word previously mentioned, "conflict."

CONFLICT

death	murder	hate
lose	war	love
win	resolution	man
yell	dilemma	personal
scream	pain	hostage
fight	maturity	people
poison	guns	enemy
bombs	knives	friend

Step Two - Dividing Items into Groups

Next, the teacher rereads the list orally, pointing to each word as it is pronounced. The students, individually or in small groups, are then told to construct smaller lists of words that have something in common using only words from the large list previously obtained. Smaller lists grouped by the students should contain at least three words. Words in the large list may be used in more than one category as long as the grouping is different. If used with small groups, a recorder should be selected by each group to record the group's categories and lists of words.

Step Three - Labeling the Groups

After the students have completed grouping words by catetories, the teacher then records the lists of words

and categories from each student or small group on another part of the blackboard or another sheet of paper. The initial master list must be visible for easy reference by the teacher. It is important that the teacher ask the student or group of students to defend their thinking as the category is recorded. In this way all students will have the benefit of seeing other categories and hear the reason why words are grouped together. Using the list of words generated by the stimulus word, "conflict," the following are possible categories:

1. hate, love, scream, yell, fight, pain = emotional reactions

2. death, murder, love, lose, win, war, hate, maturity = results of conflict

3. man, friend, emeny, personal, hostage = people in conflict

4. guns, poison, knives, bombs, people = weapons of conflict

Since the grouping and labeling might present a problem for some students, the teacher may decide to "walk" the the students through the List-Group-Label lesson by modeling his or her thinking for them. Another suggestion to aid students in getting started is for the teacher to construct the first category and label it until the students understand the procedure. Also, the teacher might list words in a category and have students decide what to label the list. Finally, if a student or group of students has some words which they cannot fit into a category, tell them to start a "misfit" list. As lists of categories are compared during the follow-up discussion, students will note that one list of misfits is rarely similar to another student's or group's list of misfits.

Reinforcement Activities:

a. Word Puzzle

Word Puzzle, as explained by Herber (1978), provides a reinforcement activity where definitions of words are the basic clue to the puzzle. A key topic word which expresses the topic under study serves as the focal point for the puzzle. Herber provides this example:

Example No. One - Chinese Puzzle

Directions: Look at the definitions below. Think of a word that has the same number of letters as the number of spaces provided and has the given letters in the same position. Write the word on the line:

C_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

_ _ _ _ H_

_ _ _ _ I_ _ _

_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ N

_ _ E_ _ _

_ _ _ _ S_ _

_ _ _ _ _ _ E

1. followers of Chairman Mao
2. last great dynasty
3. customs that have been handed down
4. a sudden and violent change of government
5. an agreement between two or more nations
6. a group of rulers from one family

y. an official order

Example No. Two - Vocabulary Puzzle

Applied to this article, a Word Puzzle might look something like this one. Why not try to solve the puzzle? The answers are at the end of the exercise.

V_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

_ _ O_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

C_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

_ _ A_ _ _ _ _

_ _ B_ _

_ U_ _ _ _

_ L_ _ _ _

_ _ _ _ A _ _ _ _ _ _ _

_ _ _ _ _ _ R

Y _ _

1. key word in title of article
2. traditional vocabulary practice
3. program which often involves no direct teaching
4. precedes reinforcement
5. last word in a vocabulary strategy
6. what's this?
7. reader with a large vocabulary
8. content area
9. when you really 'own' a word
10. key person in vocabulary teaching

(Answers to the vocabulary exercise:)

1. vocabulary
2. phonic analysis
3. commercial
4. teaching
5. Label
6. puzzle
7. fluent
8. social studies
9. insider
10. you

In closing, vocabulary activities which involve relevant words, active student involvement, are contextually oriented, and easy for the teacher to prepare seem to be the most successful. If our goal is to produce fluent readers, we can offer our students no less as the core of a well-planned reading program at all levels.

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SELF-DIRECTED PRACTICE ACTIVITIES FOR READING: EXTENDING TIME-ON-TASK

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One of the most convincing conclusions that emerged from the research on teaching conducted during the 1970's was the correlation between student achievement and student time-on-task. A considerable body of evidence indicates that the amount of time students spend studying a particular topic is the single most important determinant of their mastery of that topic (Berliner, 1977; Cooley & Leinhardt, 1980: Gump, 1971; Harris, 1968; Ozcelik, 1973; Wanat, 1975; Wiley & Harnischfeger, 1974). The amount of time that students spend on task in reading (e.g., reading books, doing worksheets, or being directly instructed by the teacher) is positely correlated with their reading achievement, whereas the time that students spend off task in reading (e.g., doing arts and crafts, talking to one another, or listening to management directions given by the teacher) is negatively correlated with their reading achievement (Stallings, 1974, 1975). When teachers alter their instructional procedures so that student time-on-task is increased, it has a significantly beneficial effect on their achievement (Anderson, 1976; Stallings, Needels & Stayrook, 1979). Moreover, poor readers are usually provided with less time-on-task in reading than are the more able readers, even though the poor readers are more in need of assistance (Biemeller, 1977, Evertson, 1980; McDermott, 1977).

That time-on-task and achievement should be related is really just simple common sense; but the classroom application of that idea is not all that simple because some on-task instructional activities in reading are more effective in increasing students' reading achievement than are others. This paper will focus on how the teacher can increase students' time-on-task in reading within the constraints faced by most classroom teachers. The paper will first identify the characteristics of effective on-task instructional activities. It will then describe some student, self-directed practice activities that illustrate how teachers in any classroom can effectively incre students' time-on-task in reading under normal classroom conditions.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE ON-TASK INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

The differential effects on students' reading achievement of different instructional activities is suggested by a study conducted by Stallings, Needels and Stayrook (1979). Their study, conducted in 87 secondary remedial classrooms, correlated students' achievement scores (Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills) across three categories of observed classroom activities, characterized as Interactive On-Task Instruction,

Noninteractive On Task Instruction, and Off-Task Activities. Interactive instruction is an activity whereby the teacher teaches students, face to face. Noninteractive instruction is an activity whereby students engage in reading tasks without direct, face-to-face teacher supervision. Each teacher was observed for three days, during which time the researchers categorized the specific activities provided during the regular one-hour reading period. The average percentage of observed time that was devoted to each of these activities during the reading period is shown in Table 1, along with the correlations between the time devoted to those activities and students' achievement scores.

Table 1

Average Percentage of Observed Time Spent in Activities and Their Correlations With Reading Achievement

Activity	Percent*	r	p
Interactive On-Task Instruction			
Discussion/Review	17	.63	.001
Reading aloud	6	.28	.05
Drill and practice	4	.38	.01
Noninteractive On-Task Instruction			
Classroom management	26	-.30	.05
Silent reading	15	-.40	.001
Written assignments	21	-.41	.001
Off-Task Activities			
Organizing	5	-.27	.05
Social interactions	5	-.30	.05
Negative interactions	.3	.00	N.S.

*These activities may occur simultaneously, so the sum is greater than 100%. Adapted from Stallings, Needels & Stayrook, 1979.

The dramatically differential effects of the two kinds of on-task instructional activities bear further examination because one is positively associated with student achievement while the other is negatively associated with it. While the effects of interactive and noninteractive on-task activities may be surprising to some, the research on learning suggests that the difference is to be expected. Interactive and noninteractive on-task instructional activities differ in two critically

important ways. Only in the interactive on-task instructional activity (1) is the student normally required to respond actively and (2) does the teacher normally provide feedback immediately after each student's response. Research shows rather conclusively that feedback works to increase what students learn from doing an instructional activity (Anderson & Faust, 1973, Anderson, Kulhavy & Andre, 1971; Dressel, Schmidt & Kincaid, 1952; Gagne, 1970; Gilman, 1969; Hanna, 1976; Kulhavy, 1977; Meyer, 1960; Durber & Anderson, 1975), but that feedback will facilitate student learning only if the student is required to respond actively before the feedback is provided (Anderson, 1970; Anderson & Faust, 1967; Brown, 1966; Faust & Anderson, 1967).

One way of maximizing the amount of time that the teacher spends in direct instruction is to have all students doing the same activity, such as the teacher conducting a phonics lesson with the entire class. The weakness of this whole-class approach is that individual differences being what they are, any one lesson will be appropriate for only a small percentage of students. The one lesson will not be instructionally effective for the majority of the students in the class because it will be too difficult for some and too easy for others. For example, Tovey (1972) found that only 8 percent of 526 first-grade students were receiving phonics instruction that was appropriate for their level of phonics proficiency. Students who were at early first-grade level of proficiency were receiving instruction too advanced for them, while students who were ready for second-grade phonics were exposed to what they already knew. The inappropriate placement of students adversely affects their learnings; they learn the most when placed in materials at an appropriate level of difficulty (Corey, 1977; Jorgenson, Klein & Kumar, 1977; Stallings, 1978).

The customary way of providing for students' individual differences is to group them by ability for instruction. Unfortunately, this solution to the problem of individual differences creates another problem; the students the teacher is not working with will be involved in either noninteractive on-task reading activities or in off-task reading activities, and as we have already seen those two kinds of activities are negatively correlated with student achievement.

Fortunately, the second problem can be solved by designing noninteractive on-task reading activities that have the two critical characteristics of interactive on-task activities, active student response and immediate feedback.

EXAMPLES OF EFFECTIVE NONINTERACTIVE ON-TASK ACTIVITIES

Examples of instructionally effective noninteractive on-task activities will be explained in three areas; sight-work decoding, phonics, and comprehension. The examples will be in three modes; individual

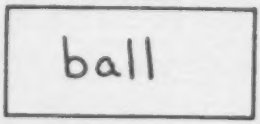
assignment, peer teaching, and group games.

Sight-Word Decoding

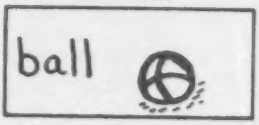
The first step in designing an instructionally effective on-task activity for sight-word decoding is to define in operational terms the desired goal of sight-word decoding. The operational definition used here is this: when shown a written word the student is expected to pronounce it correctly in three seconds or less. For example, the student is shown the written word ball on a card and is expected to say "ball" in three seconds or less.

The instructional material used in all three modes might be word cards designed like the one shown below:

Front Side



Back Side



Individual Assignment

A student carrying out an individual assignment would be given a pile of word cards designed like the one shown above. The words would have been introduced earlier in direct instruction, and are to be practiced as an individual assignment. With each card the student is to say the word on the front side very quietly, and then to turn the card to the back side in order to check the correctness of his or her pronunciation. The student's saying of the word on the front side of the card constitutes an active response, while the word and picture on the back side constitutes feedback. If the words were introduced earlier then students will have usually learned to call the pictures by the correct names.

Peer Teaching

Peer teaching can be carried out by having two students helping each other work on a pile of word cards which have been designed like the one above. The words should have been introduced earlier in direct instruction. The tutor shows the tutee the front side of the card. The tutor asks the tutee to say the word. If the tutee pronounces the word correctly, the tutor can say "Right" and presents the next card. If the tutee pronounces the incorrectly, the tutor can turn the card to the back side, have the tuee say the word while looking at the picture, and then turn the card to the front side and have the word pronounced

again. That card would then be placed in the pile and would be presented again to the tutee. Peer teaching will usually result in higher achievement than individual assignments because the tutee is required to respond actively and feedback is provided only after that response has occurred. With an individual assignment the student can look at the back side of the card before having pronounced the word on the front side of the card.

Group Game

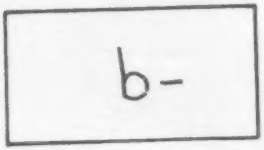
A suitable group game can be constructed by designing a board where one moves along a series of steps by rolling a die or flipping a spinner. Each step contains a pocket with a word card in it that is designed like the one shown above. In order to move onto or past each step the student must correctly pronounce the word for that step. If the person cannot pronounce a word, he or she pulls the card out of the pocket and turns it to the back side. After saying the word correctly, the student places the card in the pocket, front side up, and awaits his or her next turn in order to say that word and move across that step. The rules of the game can be made as complex as the teacher wishes, as long as the game has students pronouncing the word on the front side, and then checking the back side of the card if there is any doubt about the accuracy of their pronounciation. The words used in the game should have been introduced earlier in direct instruction.

Phonics

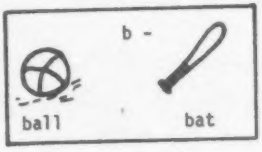
The first step in designing an instructionally effective on-task activity for phonics is to define in operational terms the desired goal of phonics. The operational definition used here is this: when shown a written letter or group of letters the student is expected to say one or more words containing that letter or group of letters. For example, when shown the written letter b on a card, the student is expected to say "ball and bat."

The instructional material used in all three modes might be word cards designed like the one shown below:

Front Side



Back Side



The modes of individual assignment, peer teaching, and group game would be carried out just as they would be with sight words. Students look at the front side of the card, say two words beginning with that letter, and then turn the card over to the back side to check the accuracy of their response. Saying words for the phonic pattern shown on the front side of the card constitutes an active response. Looking at the pictures and words on the back side of the card constitutes feedback. The phonic patterns that students practice should have been introduced earlier in direct instruction.

Comprehension

The first step in designing an instructionally effective on-task activity for comprehension is to define in operational terms the desired goal of comprehension. The example shown here is for what might be called literal comprehension, meaning that the student is able to understand the literal idea that written words convey. One way of determining a student's ability to understand the literal ideas conveyed by words is to ask him or her to match written sentences with pictures. For example:

Directions: Draw a line to the right sentence.

The watermelon is red.

The ring is on the finger.

The instructional material used in all three modes (individual assignment, peer teaching, games) might be word cards with an exercise like that shown above on the front side of the card and the correct answer on the back side of the card. The correct answer might consist of both the picture and the right sentence. With all three modes students look at the front side of the card, select the better answer by pointing to one of two sentences, and then turn the card over to the back side in order to check the accuracy of their response. Identifying the correct sentence constitutes an active response. Looking at the sentence and picture on the back side of the card constitutes feedback. The modes of peer teaching and games will probably result in more effective practice than will individual assignment because with the former two modes students can be required to make an active response before being provided feedback. Word cards like the one shown above can be constructed relatively quickly by cutting pictures out of old workbooks and glueing them to cards containing two sentences. The sentences should be at readability level that is appropriate for the students using the cards.

SUMMARY

Students' reading achievement ban be raised by increasing the amount of time they spend actively engaged in doing reading tasks. How much effect those reading tasks have on student reading achievement is a direct function of two factors: (1) student responds actively to task; and, (2) teacher provides appropriate feedback immediately after each student response. This paper described student, self-directed tasks in three areas of reading that will usually accomplish the two factors successfully.

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